CHALLENGES FACED BY TEACHERS IN APPLYING READING STRATEGIES WHEN TEACHING ENGLISH READING IN THE FOUNDATION PHASE IN THE MTHATHA DISTRICT

by

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A thesis submitted in fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of

DOCTOR OF EDUCATION

at

WALTER SISULU UNIVERSITY

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OCTOBER 2015
ABSTRACT

This study sought to investigate challenges faced by teachers in applying reading strategies when teaching reading in the Foundation Phase in the Mthatha District in South Africa. The study was conducted at Four Junior Secondary Schools. It was prompted by a deep concern about challenges faced by teachers in applying reading strategies required in the Foundation Phase. While studies have been carried out on applying reading strategies in the Foundation Phase, few studies have looked at the factors impacting on reading in South African schools, especially in the Mthatha District where isiXhosa is the mother tongue.

The method used in this study involved a qualitative approach. The study addressed the following research questions: What strategies are used in the Foundation Phase? What type of challenges are faced by teachers? To what extent are educators trained to teach reading in the Foundation Phase? Does the lack of resources affect the performance of learners? To what extent does the use of a second language affect the performance of Foundation Phase learners? Do teachers receive enough support from the Department of Education to teach reading?

The study is a multiple-case study and data were collected through individual interviews and focus group interviews (sixteen teachers were interviewed). Content analysis guided the data analysis through themes derived from the subsidiary questions. Data reporting took the form of thick description and verbatim quotations in line with the qualitative approach of the study. A pilot study was conducted in two Junior Secondary Schools for the purpose of validity and reliability.
The study’s findings revealed that: Different reading strategies were used by teachers in the Foundation Phase, teachers faced many challenges in applying reading strategies such as teacher training in the teaching of reading. This suggests that intervention is needed by the Department of Education such as providing relevant resources which are essential in order to address the problem of reading. Improvisation by teachers to improve reading material, insufficient allocation of time, multilingualism, teacher competence, lack of motivation and parental involvement in relation to learner performance in reading all need attention in order to solve problems. Furthermore, lack of resources hinders the reading ability of learners. The use of home language as a medium of instruction in teaching reading is highlighted. There is insufficient support by the Department of Education for Foundation Phase teachers to teach reading.

Based on the study findings, the researcher has recommended that teachers should be urged to use reading strategies in a way that benefits learners. The use of reading strategies, therefore, needs more attention. Libraries should be built in these schools to enable learners to develop a culture of reading. Education development officers, subject advisors, lead teachers and parents should work together to improve the reading ability of Foundation Phase learners.

**Keywords: Reading strategies, strategies, reading, challenges faced by teachers.**
DECLARATION

I VUYOKAZI CWEBA, student number 195616391 declare that the thesis “Challenges faced by teachers in applying reading strategies when teaching reading in the Foundation Phase in the Mthatha district” which I submit for the degree of DOCTOR OF EDUCATION at Walter Sisulu University is my own work. All sources I have used or quoted have been indicated and acknowledged by means of complete references. This study has not previously in its entirety or in part been submitted at any university in order to obtain an academic qualification.

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ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

I would like to take this opportunity to acknowledge and thank the following people who helped me throughout my Doctorate studies:

My supervisor, Dr S. L. Songxaba, for being so tolerant, patient, supportive and caring all the way;

My co-supervisor, Dr J. M. Molepo, for his encouragement and support, his wisdom, caring attitude, patience and positive criticism, which made me grow. He was an inspiration and will always be respected and honoured for his humble nature;

The Director of Walter Sisulu University Research Development Office for funding;

My mother, Mrs Ntombi-Ntombi (Dosini), who always motivates me to study;

My husband, Mr. Mzwanele Cweba, who also motivates me to study; for his understanding and patience, without which I would not be where I am today;

My two lovely children, Andisiwe (Nolly) and Masikhule (Ndodana) Cweba, who ran errands to make sure that I had what I needed when I was often away from them,

My brothers, my only sister (Nomfundiso Mnyazi) and all family members, who have always been there for me;

My appreciation also goes to my language Editor, Jill D’Eramo, for proofreading the first draft of this thesis.

My colleagues at school for motivating me and understanding when I had to take leave
My fellow students, Gcelu, Maqhubela, Rabaza, Nobanda, Sobekwa and Mcengwa.

Without you I could not have made it.

Lonwabo Sogoni and Nondumiso Jojo thank you for your patience.

My Almighty who was my pillar of strength during the hard times in this study.
DEDICATION

I dedicate this work to my beloved late father, J. MNYAZI, my sister, N. MNYAZI, father in-law, N.M. CWEBA and mother in-law, V.F.B. CWEBA. Although you are no longer with us in this world I share this with you spiritually.
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ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS USED IN THIS STUDY

ACE: Advanced Certificate in Education

ANA: Annual National Assessment

BETD: Basic Education Teacher Diploma

BICS: Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills

CALP: Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency

CAPS: Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement

DBE: Department of Basic Education

DET: Department of Education and Training

DoE: Department of Education

EAP: English for Academic Purposes

ESL: English Second Language

FAL: First Additional Language

FDE: Further Diploma in Education

FL: Foundations for Learning

HL: Home Language

IQMS: Integrated Quality Management System
LOLT: Language of Learning and Teaching

NCS: National Curriculum Statement

NPDE: National Professional Diploma in Education

OBE: Outcomes-Based Education

PTC: Primary Teacher’s Certificate

RNCS: Revised National Curriculum Statement

ZPD: Zone of Proximal Development

C2005: Curriculum 2005
CHAPTER 1

1. INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

1.1. Introduction

The aim of this study was to investigate challenges faced by teachers in applying reading strategies when teaching reading in the Foundation Phase (FP). This chapter offers an introduction to the premises of the study, the background, conceptual framework, theoretical framework, conceptual framework, statement of the problem, main and subsidiary research questions, objectives, rationale, significance, delimitation and limitations of the study.

1.2. Background of the study

The ability to read is crucial for functioning in contemporary society. The importance of literacy is accentuated by its inclusion amongst larger political debates about the economic competitiveness of countries and international trends such as globalisation (Murphy, Shannon, Johnston & Hansen, 1998, p.65). Locally, many young learners in South Africa are struggling to acquire the obligatory reading skills for academic and occupational progress (Fleisch, 2008; Howie 2007; Moloi and Straus, 2005; Sailors and Hoffman, 2007). Indeed, worldwide in both developed and underdeveloped countries, learners’ low reading skills attainment remains problematic (Commeyras & Inyenga, 2007).

Reasons for learners’ low reading outcomes are varied and often difficult to pinpoint due to the complex interplay of socio-economic, linguistic, cognitive, educational and
personal variables. Regardless of the underlying reasons for learner’s poor outcomes, the responsibility for dealing with the improvements of these outcomes is usually placed predominantly upon a country’s educational authorities, a responsibility which filters down to schools and ultimately becomes the task of the individual teacher to address. This task must be accomplished within the parameters of the curriculum, national and provincial education directives, the resources available, adherence to the school management of the reading programme and within the realms of teachers’ own conceptions about reading.

The accepted assumption in South Africa is that after the Foundation Phase of schooling, a phase to attain basic literacy, learners are then prepared to make use of the transition from learning to read to reading to learn during the Intermediate Phase of schooling using a default language of instruction, which is often English (Lessing and de Witt, 2005). Learners’ difficulties with reading, if not addressed, permeate all future educational undertakings as the gap between their reading and the demands of the curriculum widens.

Some South African researchers report learner performance outcomes associated with this reading problem (DBE, 2003; Moloi and Strauss, 2005) and others (Sailors, 2007) provide an indication of the type of interventions that are considered to promote optimum literate language development for learners; however, teachers remain at the frontline, where these learner assessment results and advocacies are perhaps of little consequence as they deal with the reality of reading literacy teaching to diverse learner populations in schooling contexts which are often less
than optimal. There are reading challenges which teachers face when teaching reading.

Parents of learners in many public schools are illiterate, therefore, learners find difficult to read because of a lack of literacy in the home. Deplany, Coulter-Kern and Duchane (2007) point out that most illiterate parents lack interest in their children’s academic progress; for instance, they are hesitant to attend meetings concerning their children’s performance in schools due to the lack of confidence, often due to embarrassment in presence of teachers and other literate parents. Deplany et al (2007), state that these parents do not visit the schools or monitor their children's books after school, during weekends and even during holidays. Ricciut, (2004) contends that the challenge most illiterate parents are facing is their occupation as they mainly occupy such demanding jobs as domestic work. Most of them, therefore, do not have time for their children since they get home late from work and often suffer severe exhaustion.

Reading strategies are used in various countries in the Foundation Phase but they are not necessarily the same; teachers often use strategies that suit only themselves.

1.2.1 Reading strategies in other countries

Bonnie (2005, p.34) in the USA, states that there are reading strategies used such as demonstration which includes the use of the real objects, performing actions, using gestures and facial expressions, choral drill and letting the children all chant together following along as the teacher leads. Look and say is the technique of
learners listening to the teacher and looking at the object then repeating a word or sentence after the teacher. The researcher supports Bonnie in the claim that if a teacher’s gestures or facial expressions when reading are clear it is easier for the learner to grasp the information and read the words.

In France, English is the third most spoken language. Many people who aspire to speak English take English language classes. There are strategies which are used by teachers teaching primary school English using materials such as worksheets and quizzes which are useful classroom material that students can use to learn English as a Second Language (ESL). Curriculum ESL classes should emphasize a curriculum that will help students acquire and practise necessary communication skills in the language: in this case English.

Sullivan (2002b, p.17) states that teachers in Australia use a variety of reading strategies in the primary schools such as questioning, modelling, group work and class meetings. He further states that many lessons begin by focusing students on the lesson.

Watee (2012) states that the Kenya Certificate of Primary Education (KCPE) and mock results in the last five years show that learners perform poorly in English. They further state that there are reading strategies used in teaching in primary schools such as group work, peer teaching, story-signing, cooperative teaching and dramatization. Chirinda (2011, p.38) states that statistics on the performance of learners in a Grade 3 final examination showed that most learners failed English as a subject during the years 2003 to 2009 in the Midlands, a province of Kenya. The government then introduced
interventions in the form of workshops to introduce teachers to strategies using learner-centred methods and doing away with the teacher-centred method. Teachers faced certain challenges in applying these reading strategies.

1.2.2 Reading challenges faced by teachers in other countries such as USA, Kenya, India, Columbia and Singapore.

In the United States, teachers face the challenge of teaching children to read and write in English when the learners have a home language that is not English and they are not yet proficient in English. Different teaching styles in reading make this a critical issue. Several studies suggest that teachers are not receiving adequate professional development in effective strategies to address the English as second language learners’ literacy development (Bonnie, 2005, p. 28). The researcher agrees: in South Africa there is also a challenge of teaching learners to read in the Foundation Phase. Many learners cannot read and that is why the Department of Basic Education introduced the Annual National Assessment (ANA).

Okwach and George (1997) state that in Kenya there are challenges faced by teachers in applying reading strategies such as teacher shortage, teachers’ learning facilities, managerial skills, students’ mobility from public and within public schools and the problem of embezzlement of funds. The Department of Basic Education at the beginning of the year checks reading readiness at every school for that academic year in Kenya.

Learning a second language (L2) in multilingual environments can be more challenging than language learning in other contexts for a variety of reasons. In
multilingual settings, established patterns of communication may lead to the foreign
tongue (English) being seen as an ‘intruder’ in the already-established interaction
system, especially amongst children. In a study Eritrea, researchers noted that
literacy practices may appear complex due to unequal relationships between
different languages (Asfaha & Kroon, 2011) and contextual compromise in standard
language use (Pitt, 2005) leading to adaptation and mixing of languages. Clegg and
Afitska (2011) show how a lack of fluency in a common language leads to ‘creative
bilingual practices’ in order to enable communication between teachers and learners
in African classrooms.

This parallels similar developments in other countries where English has become the
preferred and dominant language, such as India, Singapore and South Africa
(Hornberger & Vaish, 2008). In many countries in Africa the dominance of English is
a legacy of colonialism which continues to influence the implementation of
multilingual education policies (Mazrui & Mazrui, 1992; Rassool & Edwards, 2010)
and affects language learning, language use and language choice in bilingual and
multilingual communities, schools and classrooms, such as those in Kenya.

For learners in multilingual primary schools, early intervention in English language
acquisition provides not only an extra language for communication, but also
represents a vital tool for achieving academic goals and subsequent social mobility.

According to Rhaghans (March 21, 1996), early childhood Education in India is
subject to two extreme but contrary deficiencies. On the one hand, millions of young
children in lower income groups, especially rural and girl children, comprising nearly
40% of first grade entrance never complete primary school. He also argues that
even among those who do, poorly-qualified teachers, very high student-teacher ratios, inadequate teaching materials and out-moded teaching methods result in a low quality of education that often imparts little or no real learning. It is not uncommon for students completing six years of primary schooling in village public schools to lack even rudimentary reading and writing skills.

Rhagans, *ibid* further states that in India at the other end of the social and educational spectrum, children attending urban schools, especially middle and upper-class children in private schools, are subjected to extremely competitive pressures, from a very early age, to acquire basic language skills and memorise vast amounts of information in order to qualify for admission into the best schools. Parents and teachers exert intense pressure on young children to acquire academic skills at an age when children should be given freedom and encouraged to learn as a natural outcome of their innate curiosity, playfulness and eagerness to experiment. Rising concern over compulsory learning at an early age is prompting many educators to advocate dramatic steps to counter the obsession with premature and forced teaching practices.

Annual Status of Education Report (ASER) (2005) states that with more than 93% of children ages 6 to 14 years old enrolled in school, India’s picture of an “education for all” was beginning to come into focus in 2005. According to the United Nations Children’ Fund (UNICEF), however, when Prathama an Indian NGO conducted its first Annual Status of Education Report the picture was less encouraging. Prathama assessed rural schools in 28 of India’s 35 state and found that 75 of teachers showed up for class 3, 80% of schools provided textbooks for most of their students
and only 15% of Grade 2 and 25% of Grade 3 could read a simple paragraph. ASER (2010) highlights that more than half of the children in rural areas in India are at least three grade levels behind where they need to be. India’s Right to Education Act became law in April 2010, mandating free and compulsory education for all children ages to 14 years. Most children in India showing up for class are not learning the basic skills and they are not alone. ASER (2010) further states that learning starts with reading and effective models of teaching reading and supporting literacy in the community have been shown to boost children’s reading performance in leaps and bounds.

In Columbia, young children enter elementary school with many different needs, skill levels and learning histories (Kauffman, 2001; Meese, 2001; Mercer & Mercer, 2001). The challenge of meeting the typical needs of a group of young children who are at different developmental and skill levels, teachers also need to be prepared to work with young children who are at risk for failure in school (Kaiser & Hester, 1997; Carnegie Task Force on Meeting the Needs of Young Children, 1994).

James Comer states that "given increasing divorce rates, the growing numbers of single-parent families and families in which both parents work, and the general complexity of modern life, even children of well-educated, middle-class parents can come to school unprepared for reading because of the stress their families are undergoing" (as cited in Ascher, 1993, p. 2 ). This causes most children to be at risk to fail at school with regard reading skills because lack of parental support.

Children, who are at risk to fail because of poverty and poorly-developed or non-standard English-language skills, may also be considered vulnerable because of their
behaviour. The importance of providing supportive early elementary school experiences that build skills and competencies in young children who are vulnerable for having social and academic problems cannot be overstated (Walker, 1998).

One of the ongoing challenges for researchers and teacher educators is to provide teachers in early elementary school classrooms (i.e., kindergarten through third grade) with specific strategies to meet successfully the academic and social needs of a diverse group of young children. To better understand the dynamic interaction of layered influences, it is important to provide a theoretical model to use as a framework for understanding reading.

Adelman et al (2010) confirmed that major reading challenges in Malawi, Lesotho, Uganda, Zambia and Zanzibar are the lack of training and support for teachers, minimal instructional time, poorly resourced schools, absence of books in the home and problematic language of instruction policies and practices.

**Teachers lack training and support** – Universal primary education expansion has purged some systems to the brink in terms of teacher supply, such as pupil teacher ratio are on the rise in sub-Saharan Africa at 45:1 in primary schools in 2008 up to 9% from 1999 (UNESCO, 2011). The inadequate supply of teachers has resulted in recruiting and hiring uncertified teachers in many countries putting pressure on both the teacher preparation (pre-service) and teacher professional development (in-service) systems. Mulkeen (2010) states that in sub-Saharan Africa found that with a limited number of qualified applicants, teacher training colleges in many countries have lower their already low entry requirements. Training in teaching methods is often theoretical, subject matter instruction poorly aligned with school curriculum
and courses delivered by instructors with little to no experience teaching at the primary level. The researcher noticed that in these countries teaching is very poor and the performance of learners was very low. The researcher also agreed that South Africa is better than these countries because only the Grade R teachers who were not trained and not all of them.

**Instructional time is frequently wasted** – Abadzi (2009) confirmed that learners’ opportunity to learn is decreased by informal school closures such as strikes, inclement weather, *ad hoc* holidays, teacher and learner absenteeism, delayed school openings, early departures and poor classroom time. Because time for reading practice is crucial to literacy any instructional time loss detracts directly from outcomes in early grade reading.

**Children and their schools are poorly equipped with the most basic resources** – Dowd et al (2010b and Pinto, 2010) state that the availability of reading books both in schools and at home is a critical component for learning to read. In Mali, a recent survey revealed that 75% of learners in Grade 2 did not have reading books and no learner had supplementary reading books at school (Evans, 2010) a situation that is not uncommon throughout the developing world. The researcher noticed that there is a crisis in reading in these countries. Evans (2010) states that reading books and libraries are scarce but when available they can have powerful impact on learning to read.

**Language of instruction policies and approaches do not meet learner’s learning** – Dutcher and Tucker (1997, p.36) state that while many factors affect education quality, the language of classroom instruction fundamentally impacts
whether a learner is able to read and learn. Language skills such as visual awareness, phonemic awareness and automaticity developed in a first language are transferrable to a second language (UNESCO, 2008, Bialystock, 2006 and Geva 2006). These learners arrive on the first day of school with thousands of oral vocabulary words and considerable phonemic awareness in their mother tongue but are unable to use and build upon their skills (Dutcher, 2004). These learners dismissing their prior knowledge and teachers trying to teach learners to read in a language they are not accustomed to hearing and speaking, makes the teaching of reading difficult especially in under-resourced schools. According to Dutcher (2004) learners repeat grades or drop out of school while those who stay in school lack basic literacy skills and therefore, do not master further content knowledge because of LoIT used in these schools.

UNESCO, 2008, Heugh et al, 2007, Alidou, et al 2006, Fafunwa, et al 1989 and Smits, et al, 2008, state that despite growing evidence that mother tongue based bilingual or multilingual education is crucial, to improving education access and quality in the implementation of mother tongue. Education policies continues to be hampered by political debates that are not focused on what best facilitates learner’s learning. Consequently, the mother tongue policy is not practised in the classroom or the transition period between mother tongue and second language is so abrupt that it undermines the transfer of language skill acquired in the early grades.

The researcher’s view is that the use of mother tongue in the Foundation Phase is very important because it is easy for the learners to acquire basic skills in their home
language and thereafter, transfer it to the second language in the Intermediate Phase.

1.2.3. National language, reading readiness versus language learning

Block (1997, p.125) argues that educators believe that learners have to reach a level of “readiness” before literacy concepts can “imprint”. He further states that this philosophical position, known as reading readiness or language readiness, follows a philosophy that children have to acquire a basic set of mental skills before instructions in reading and writing can begin. He also states that the first 6 years of a child’s life are extremely important since that is when most language is acquired. Linguists and psychologists have also found that emergent literacy follows a similar path, regardless of the language a child is learning.

The Bill of Rights (Chapter 2, Clause 29) in the Constitution of Republic of South Africa, Act 108 of 1997 states that everyone has the right to receive education in the official language or languages of their choice in public educational institutions where that education is reasonably practicable. The rights of learners are violated when they do not have that right.

According to the National Language Policy (2003, p.5), management of linguistic diversity in post-apartheid South Africa has become problematic due to the lack of a clearly-defined language policy. This has led to the use of English and Afrikaans being the most dominant languages in the socio-economic and political domains of South African society.
The problem has been that there has been no serious effort to cultivate and develop literacy in the mother tongue on a large scale, especially regarding all the African languages spoken in the country. The teaching of reading strategies has thus been affected.

The Department of Basic Education (DBE) introduced the Language in Education Policy (LIEP) which stresses multilingualism as an extension of cultural diversity and as an integral part of building a non-racial South Africa. The underlying principle is to retain the learner’s language for learning and teaching, but also to encourage learners to acquire additional languages. LIEP deals with such matters as languages of learning and teaching in public schools, school curricula and the language-related duties of provincial Departments of Basic Education and School Governing Bodies.

Multilingualism: The new South African Constitution Act (No 58 of 1995), in brief, is developed in such a way that it prioritises, among other principles, the principle of human rights and equality of human status. It recognises all 11 official languages and gives them the same status at national level.

According to the policy, schools use their discretion to choose two or more learning languages including the one spoken in the area. These languages are introduced as early as grade one. This approach does not promote effective language learning including that of reading. The argument the researcher presents is that the learner is still grappling with his or her own language and is then burdened with learning alien languages. This policy affects teachers when applying reading strategies because learners in the Foundation Phase encounter difficulties when they go to another school which uses another language for teaching. This language overload inevitably
overwhelms the learner. Poor language acquisition may, therefore, impact negatively on reading proficiency. The same teachers suggest that the teaching of mother tongue from Grade R to Grade 3 is in keeping with the South African language policy.

The current South African Language-In-Education Policy [LIEP] (DBE, 1997) specifies that all learners must learn to read in their vernacular from Grades 1 to 3. In schools where English or Afrikaans has not been the medium of instruction in the Foundation Phase, Grade 4 signals a shift in the medium of instruction for all learning tasks to English, coinciding with a change in the focus of learning from concrete, basic skill development to progressively more abstract thinking and learning tasks across a variety of learning areas.

Dyers (2003, p.61) highlights the view that teachers, in certain schools in the country, feel that the current South African LIEP, which calls for the switch to English instruction after Grade 3 in schools where the majority of learners are English second language speakers and learners, is contributing to educational failure amongst learners. If mother tongue reading skills are not in place, this switch can be more problematic. Furthermore, Dyers (2003, p.61) contends that educators are struggling to respond adequately to the increased linguistic diversity found amongst learners in their classrooms. As Heugh (2006, p.9) confirms, most learners who have to make the transition to “reading to learn” in Grade 4 “simply fall into the gap between learning in the mother tongue and learning through a second language of education, (English). Most teachers do not know how to help their learners successfully bridge this gap”.

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In 2006, planned alterations to the current LIEP were announced (Pandor, 2006). Amendments to the policy were designed to lead to the promotion of a further two years of mother tongue education. In effect, this means that the switching to English occurs at the beginning of the Grade 7 year of schooling for those learners who had been learning in languages other than English or Afrikaans from the beginning of formal schooling. This shift in policy is in line with a large corpus of research into bilingual education “best practices” (Alidou, Boly, Brock-Utne, Diallo, Heugh, & Ekkehard Wolff, 2006). Nonetheless, despite this proposed change to six years of mother tongue education, if learners still have not developed the literacy skills and reading proficiency needed to cope with academic tasks and for academic progress, then there may be little change to learners’ poor academic performance outcomes.

In 2004, the South African Department of Basic Education (DBE, 2004) recognised reading literacy as one of the most important priorities in education, therefore, in the Revised National Curriculum Statement (RNCS) more attention was given to reading; however, as stated by Howie, Venter, Van Staden, Zimmerman, Long, Du Toit, Sherman & Archer (2006, p.6), in the Foundation and Intermediate schooling phases, the reading outcome is "placed together with other expected language outcomes associated with overall language competency" (DBE, 2003).

Although the above government polices about reading do exist, these policies "may not be explicit enough to provide the level of support that teachers require guiding their classroom reading instruction practices" (Howie et al., 2006, p.9).

The National Reading Strategy (NRS) was put into place by the DBE with the aim of promoting a nation of life-long readers and life-long learners. The NRS recognises
that many teachers do not know how to teach reading and therefore listed teacher training, development and support as a key pillar of the NRS (DBE, 2008).

In the Eastern Cape (RSA) several studies suggest that teachers are not receiving adequate professional development in strategies (ANA, 2012, p.3 and Dotwana, 2009, p.15). The Department of Basic Education (2008, p.9) states that in the early stages of learning to read, a simple “five-finger” strategy will assist learners in using a range of word-attack skills. In order to drill reading strategies the teacher must use a particular strategy for the day.

The Department further states that there are strategies used in the Foundation Phase such as comprehension, read aloud, group-guided reading and independent reading. The Department also states that the most effective strategies are reading aloud, group reading and independent reading.

The Department of Basic Education’s (2008, p13) National Curriculum Statement (NCS) provides for approximately 10 hours per week for the teaching of reading and writing in the Foundation Phase. The five critical areas of reading that need to be taught are phonics, phonemic awareness, fluency, vocabulary and comprehension. The Department also states that a good reading teacher allows for the different learning styles. Learners should, therefore, know a range of techniques to help them to reach appropriate reading levels and teachers should use a range of methods. Teachers are to teach their learners in their own language so that it is easier for learners to acquire reading skills.
1.2.4 The importance of mother tongue

Benson (2004, p.87) states that the second language should be taught systematically so that learners can gradually transfer skills from the familiar language to the unfamiliar one. He further argues that bilingual models and practices vary as do their results, but what they have in common is their use of the mother tongue.

Mathooko (2009, p.15) states that mother-tongue teaching is used in pre-primary and lower primary levels of education and this dispels fears among rural parents concerning their children receiving education in mother tongue while urban children learn in English or Kiswahili. This author further states that mother tongue bridges the gap between dissemination of knowledge from pre-school, lower primary and upper primary. In effect, mother tongue provides the basis for the child’s ability to learn because the mother tongue provides effective formal education for children, building on their language skills and aptitudes they have already developed at home.

In Singapore, according to Boosma, Dekker and Ziemerick (2011, p.21), children are taught in English at school, but also learn their mother-tongue to make sure that they do not lose contact with their traditions. Furthermore, they indicate that mother-tongue is important because children’s attitudes are particularly positive towards it; this enhances their sense of identity, self-esteem and self-concept; when children have control over their mother-tongue, thereafter their English language performance is generally comparable with mainstream children.
According to Rademeyer (2004), learners are displaying more and more difficulties with language and spelling. Some high schools are offering bridging courses in reading and writing to try to rectify this problem, which originated from being left unattended to in the Foundation Phase. In a later article Rademeyer (2005, p.2) also stresses that it is best to start education in the mother tongue.

The most important concepts, ideas and thoughts are formed in the mother tongue. When a learner later chooses to switch over to another (second) language in school, it is easier to translate and use the concepts of the second language. If you cannot read (in whatever language) you cannot learn. Naledi Pandor, Minister of Education, confirmed this statements in an article written by Heyman (2005, p.6) that advocates that learners should access education in the language of their choice. Language is not only a communication tool, but defines who you are, where you come from and where you are heading.

It is imperative for learners to understand the medium of instruction in order to be proficient in that language. Pandor emphasizes (Joubert, 2004, p.17) the importance of learners being taught in their mother tongue during the first three years of school. Mother tongue serves as a powerful foundation to learn new concepts in a second language. When the language of learning and teaching in the school is, for example isiXhosa it is, therefore, easier for learners to read, write, listen and speak because they know the language (their mother tongue).
1.2.5 Levels of language proficiency

Cummins (1981, in Brown, 1994, p.227) revisited the issues of Basic Interpersonal Skills (BICS) and Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency (CALP) and modified the two terms based on the context in which language is used. Bialystok (2001, p. 19) asserts that “language is most effectively acquired at an early age.” This factor normally has an effect on the learners’ academic performance as it depends if the language of learning and teaching (LoLT) is the same as the learner’s home language.

1.2.6 Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency (CALP)

Language proficiency that learners need in the classroom for learning and understanding exercises and tests is called Cognitive Academic Language proficiency (Cummins, 1979). Cummins (1981) states that the language used at school for learning purposes (CALP) is regarded as context-reduced. It includes organising words into sentences to provide meaningful texts and writing assessments tasks that require higher-order thinking skills. Clark (1996, p.4) highlights that “language is the medium in which we encode reality.” According to Cummins (1984), Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency (CALP) refers to formal academic learning. CALP includes listening, reading, writing and speaking about the subject area content material. Learners need time and support to become proficient in academic areas. He further states that CALP is the basis for a child’s ability to cope with general academic demands. CALP is the cognitive linguistic competence which is closely related to academic ability skills. According to Cummins (1979), the cognitive
academic aspects of L1 and L2 are interdependent and as a result the development in the proficiency of L2 is based on the competence function of the level of their L1.

According to Cummins (1979), instruction through L1 has shown to be more effective in promoting L2 proficiency. Hudlle and Bradley (1991) indicate that innate passivity, lack of thinking and shortages of books and material place the majority of learners in the high-risk category. Cummins states that learners starts from known to the unknown when they read. Clark (1996, p.4) also highlights that language is the medium of communication and it plays an important role in educational development. Learners do not have the tools to assist them to demonstrate their full potential in learning. Learners are expected to perform challenging functions such as naming, discussing, classifying, evaluating and processing data. The communication and tasks in the classroom are cognitively demanding and learners cannot continuously interrupt the teacher by asking for explanation from their classmates or stop the teacher every time they do not understand a word or an instruction. Other tasks demand children to motivate answers or give their views on the questions set and to use the language in formal situations like debates, speech festivals, role-playing and public speaking.

1.2.7 Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills (BICS)

Cummins (1979) proposed that there be a distinction between communicative proficiency that the learner needs in daily life situations outside the classroom, to which refers to as Basic Interpersonal Skills (BICS). Cummins (1979) referred (BICS) as context embedded. He also states that conversational fluency is an ability to engage in a conversation in a familiar situation by using simple grammatical
constructions and high-frequency words. Speakers can use expressions, intonations and gestures to support what they mean. The researcher supported Cummins if a teacher used gestures while teaching a lesson to the learners it easy for the learners to understand the lesson.

Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills (BICS) are language skills needed in the social situation and they are the set of communication skills that facilitate day-to-day oral communication (Cummins 1984). He further states that BICS is the day-to-day language needed to interact socially with people. He further states that BICS comprises the skills of listening and speaking which are acquired quickly by learners. Many learners develop BICS within two years of immersion in the target language. It takes 5 to 7 years, however, for children to be working on a level with native speakers as far as academic language is concerned. He further states that this gives learners the chance to extend and advance their language development through oral language experience that develops vocabulary and builds background knowledge.

Cummins (1979) points out that everyone is able to acquire basic interpersonal communication skills (BICS) in a first language, regardless of IQ or academic aptitudes. BICS can, therefore, be described as any language’s surface fluency, which is not cognitively demanding. He argues that English learners’ language skills are often informally assessed on their ability to comprehend and respond to conservational language, however learners who are proficient in a social situation may not be prepared for the academic, context-reduced and literacy demands of mainstream classrooms. Judging students’ language proficiency based on oral and social language assessment becomes problematic when learners perform well in
social conversation but do poorly on academic tasks. These learners may be incorrectly tagged as having a learning deficit or may even be referred for testing as learning disabled (Cummins 1980). Cummins (1984) indicates that while learners may have a reasonable conversational proficiency, they may have inadequate academic or cognitive proficiency, especially when attempting written work. While it is possible to become verbally or conversationally proficient in about two years, it takes about two to seven years to achieve quality in English in verbal-academic skills. Language proficiency, according to Cummins (1984), comprises both an oral and a written component. Cummins emphasises that CALP is important for the introduction of English Second Language.

Cummins (1992) states that the bulk of the evidence suggests that there is an inverse relationship between exposure to English instruction and English achievement. South Africa is one of the countries which have a problem in reading. A project which was called the Annual National Assessment in 2011 (ANA) to assess learners in reading to see where the problem lies, was introduced in response to these difficulties.

1.2.8 The South African context

The majority of the South African population has a full command of at least two or more languages, however, English is the language learnt by most as a second language, as it is an international language and the language of instruction in most South African schools (Landsberg & Dednam 1999, 180).
“Babies are born with the instinct to speak the way spiders are born with the instinct to spin webs. You don’t need to train babies to speak; they just do. But reading is different” (Pinker, 2011, p.2).

As implied in the quotation above, reading does not develop naturally, but should be taught deliberately and explicitly by knowledgeable teachers (Dept of Basic Education Workshop, 2013, p.5).

The National Reading Strategy (2008, p. 4) states that every learner should be a fluent reader who reads to learn and reads for enjoyment and enrichment. It is every teacher’s objectives that learners who have the capacity to read, write and speak can also effectively comprehend the text; however, the research conducted by Cweba (2012) for the Annual National Assessment (2012) disputes the view that learners in the Foundation Phase simply cannot read.

The current education crisis must be understood in the context of South Africa’s history. In its second decade of democracy, South Africa’s transformation of basic education is still underway and the vestiges of apartheid still hamper children’s ability to learn (Nelson Mandela Foundation, 2004, p.9). Heugh (2000) states that apartheid effectively divided education, had a language policy built for separate development, there were unequal resources and a cognitively impoverished curriculum that resulted in the majority of the population being under-educated. This is relevant to this study.

According to Motshega, the Minister of Education, it is necessary for learners in the Foundation Phase to obtain proper reading skills in order to achieve success in the
rest of their school careers, as well as in their later economically-active years (Beeld, Wednesday 6 March, 2010, p.2). In general, South African learners’ reading skills are poorly developed from primary schools through to tertiary level. Government has only recently become aware that children cannot read, and that part of the problem applies to both mother tongue and first additional language. It is also apparent that teachers do not have the capacity to teach reading and writing (McDonald, 2002, p.47).

The ability to read and write is not a privilege but a right stated in South Africa’s Constitution (Department of Basic Education, DBE 2002, p.17). The attempt to promote reading is a task that cannot be tackled by one sector of the community, but rather all stakeholders must be involved. Assessments reveal a high number of learners who cannot read at the appropriate grade or age level and many are unable to read at all (National Reading Panel, 2004, p.80). The researcher is motivated to help teachers promote reading at the appropriate level in the grade for which they are responsible by investigating (using samples) and presenting the findings.

In any country, the initial years of school (Foundation Phase) are critical, because that is the time when learning in general, and reading skills and habits, in particular, are developed. When children experience success in effectively using these skills they become interested in and excited by reading; this enables them to have a level of literacy and numeracy by the time they start formal schooling (Read Educational Trust, 2005, p. 12). Research has shown that learners who learn how to read and write at an early stage cope well and perform better academically (Early Reading Strategy panel, ERS, 2003, p. 22).
The International Reading Association (IRA, 2005, p. 2) states that: “every child deserves excellent reading teachers, because teachers make a difference in children’s reading achievement and motivation to read.” The focus here is on the power of the teacher, not the programme used. Programmes can help or hinder a teacher’s instruction, but exemplary teachers know how to tailor the available programmes to the unique strengths and needs of their children. They realise how important each minute of each day is in helping children learn to read and write. They also reflect on their practice and learn from mistakes (Gordon & Browne, 2004, p. 32).

Pluddemann, Xola & Mahlalela-Thusi, (2000, p.67) state that the post-apartheid era brought about the most dramatic changes that occurred as a consequence of the Schools Act in South Africa which introduced racial desegregation and which resulted in the migration of learners. The flow of learners mimicked the apartheid racial hierarchy: African learners migrated to schools that had previously been open only to Indian, white or coloured children, while coloured learners migrated to Indian and white schools, and Indian learners moved to white schools. Pluddemann et al., (2000, p. 69) also state that classrooms became linguistically diverse, a cause for celebration yet with no redeployment of appropriately-qualified African-language-speaking teachers to the relevant schools, communication difficulties between teachers and learners arose. The language of learning and teaching (LOLT) remained English, resulting in many learners learning in a foreign language, i.e. a language that was not their home language and which was often unknown to them as they had little exposure to English outside of school. This situation has
subsequently created numerous teaching and learning challenges contributing to low achievement.

Added to the communication challenges is that many of these previously black and coloured schools continue to be overcrowded and under-resourced. Basic amenities and infrastructure have still not been put in place, while previous whites-only schools continue to be relatively well resourced (Soudien, 2008, p.35). In impoverished communities, such as the community in this study, teachers continue to encounter a large number of learners with many socio-economic problems that contribute to their learning difficulties. In both rural and poor urban schools there is a shortage of classrooms, teachers and basic educational tools like stationery and textbooks, combined with poor basic needs like water and electricity (Nelson Mandela Foundation, 2004, p. 4). These are some of the challenges faced by teachers in the Foundation Phase.

In the Eastern Cape (RSA) several studies suggest that teachers are not receiving adequate professional development in strategies (ANA, 2012, p.3 and Dotwana, 2009, p.15). The Department of Basic Education (2008, p.9) states that in the early stages of learning to read, a simple “five-finger” strategy will assist learners in using a range of word-attack skills. In order to drill reading strategies, the teacher must use a particular strategy for the day. The Department further states that there are strategies that should be used in the Foundation Phase such as comprehension, read aloud, group-guided reading and independent reading.

The Department of Basic Education (2008, p.13) states that the National Curriculum Statement (NCS) provides for approximately 10 hours per week for the teaching of
reading and writing in the Foundation Phase. Five critical areas of reading that need to be taught are phonics, phonemic awareness, fluency, vocabulary and comprehension. The Department also states that a good reading teacher allows for the different learning styles. Learners should know a range of techniques to help them to reach appropriate reading levels. Teachers should use a range of methods. Curriculum Assessment Policy Statement (CAPS) of 2011 states that the language of teaching and learning (LOLT) in the Foundation Phase must be isiXhosa where that language predominates.

Language is considered to be a learner’s key to the mastery of the education curriculum overall (Hannon in Bloch, 1999, p.41). A factor pivotal to the development of learners’ literacy proficiency appears to be the strategies that teachers initiate to assist in the growth of learners’ reading competency. As stated, the development of learner literacy in South Africa in the context of a developing country is underpinned by numerous challenges. One of the specific challenges that the South African education system (and therefore those organisations that train pre service teachers) currently face and which are relevant to this study, are to promote learners’ overall literate language abilities.

In South Africa, on-going concerns surrounding the development of learners’ language skills drive the literacy teaching and learning research landscapes. There are concerns associated with learners’ development of basic reading at the foundational levels of education (Bloch, 199; Hugo, Le Roux, Muller and Nel, 2005, Lessing and de Witt, 2005,p.89), concerns about their acquisition of more advanced literacy skills in high school (Matjila and Pretorius, 2004; Pretorius and Ribbens,
2005, p 104) and concerns about their attainment of the academic language skills needed for tertiary level education (Banda, 2003, Pretorius, 2002, p.86), all of which are consistently reflected in local research.

Reasons for learners’ low reading literacy outcomes are varied and often difficult to pinpoint due to the complex interplay of socio-economic, linguistic, cognitive, educational and personal variables. Regardless of the underlying reasons for learner’s poor literacy outcomes, the responsibility for dealing with the improvements of these outcomes is usually placed predominantly upon a country’s educational authorities, a responsibility which filters down to schools and ultimately becomes the task of the individual teacher to address. This task must be accomplished within the parameters of the curriculum, national and provincial education directives, the resources available, adherence to the school management of the reading programme and within realms of teachers’ own conceptions about reading literacy (Banda et al, p. 86). The Annual National Assessment (ANA) is it seems the best tool to assess learners in reading.

1.2.9. Annual National Assessment (ANA)

According to the Annual National Assessment (2011, p.10) released by the Department of Basic Education in 2011, the Foundation Phase subjects that were assessed in the (ANA) project were literacy and numeracy. The Minister of Basic Education’s Delivery Agreement with the President in 2010 says the following about the importance of improving the quality of schooling:
-it is widely recognised that the country’s schooling system performs well below its potential and that

-improving basic education outcomes is a prerequisite for the country’s long-range development goal.

The Minister also stated that South African children and youth needed to be better prepared by their schools to read, write and think critically. After the Annual National Assessment the Department of Basic Education introduced the new curriculum, that being the Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement (CAPS) for all grades particularly because of the low performance of learners in reading.

1.2.10. Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement (CAPS)

South Africa has experienced numerous educational challenges that, at times necessitated a curriculum review. The democratic South Africa has, to date, experienced two curriculum reviews (DBE, 2012). The reviews were largely dictated by observed low levels of learner performance and inadvertent curriculum implementation ambiguities that made it difficult for teachers to teach effectively. To mitigate the challenges associated with the National Curriculum Statement (NCS, Grades R–9), the re-packaged curriculum, NCS (Grades R–12), with its essential component called the Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement (CAPS), was introduced from the beginning of 2012 (DBE, 2011). The curriculum for Grades R–12 was streamlined and strengthened in CAPS and the content was then simplified and made clearer. Content coverage per term for each grade was mapped out in CAPS.
CAPS was to be implemented incrementally per phase in the General Education and Training (GET) and Further Education and Training (FET) bands as follows: Grades R–3 and Grade 10 in 2012, Grades 4–6 and Grade 11 in 2013 and Grades 7–9 and Grade 12 in 2014.

In order to improve performance in literacy in the Foundation Phase, the language skills for CAPS are packaged according to the following critical skills: Listening and Speaking, Reading and Phonics, Handwriting and Writing, and Language Structures and Use (Conventions). Given their critical importance, disproportionately more time is provided for teaching of these skills in the schools. The packaging of the CAPS takes learners back to basics in a systematic order (Dept of Basic Education 2012).

Learners are expected to master sounds (vowels and consonants) and letters to prepare their speaking and listening and writing skills. They are, therefore, expected to have full mastery of phonics in order to develop proper construction of words, sentences, paragraphs and stories. It is envisaged that full implementation of the languages in CAPS will eradicate the current poor performance of learners in literacy.

CAPS is very clear about how reading in home language should be taught in the Foundation Phase. The CAPS document differs from previous curriculum documents in that it provides Foundation Phase teachers with the following: an introduction containing guidelines on how to use the Foundation Phase document approaches to teaching the home language, content, concepts and skills to be taught per term guidelines for time allocation requirements for the formal assessment tasks and suggestions for informal assessment and lists of recommended resources per grade (DoE 2010, p.6).
1.2.11. Integrated Quality Management Systems (IQMS) and District Support (IQMS)

A total of 70 external moderators were deployed to all provinces to monitor and evaluate, amongst others, the implementation of the IQMS in schools, as well as the quality of internal and external assessment results such as ANA. These monitored the quality and implementation of the schools’ intervention strategies emanating from the ANA results. This entailed ascertaining whether or not, schools were using the ANA results to develop their improvement plans. It was encouraging to note that, based on these evaluations, most schools were systemically maintaining their assessment records and developing improvement plans.

The IQMS moderators also provided support to schools in this regard where possible. It was also established that subject advisors maintained a visible presence at schools in certain provinces and in these provinces subject advisors could be relied upon to support teachers in the implementation of the curriculum. It was also reported that these subject advisors paid regular visits to these schools. In addition, circuit managers in most provinces also provided good support to schools through personal visits, written communications and telephonic support.

There is abundant evidence from research and reports from DBE that South African learners' reading standards, as already stated, are below the expected standards (DoE, 2002, 2008), despite its vast resources. Quite conceivably, this situation can be addressed if the causal problems are identified and addressed. The study found that there were a number of factors that contributed to the low level of reading standards amongst learners. These factors include, among others, the
implementation of the National Curriculum Statement (NCS) and the inappropriate use of methodology in the teaching of reading, the multi-grade teaching approach and multilingualism.

As noted in 1.2 the accepted assumption in South Africa is that after the Foundation Phase of schooling (a phase to attain basic Literacy, Numeracy and Life skills) learners will be prepared to use the transition from learning to read, to reading to learn during the Intermediate Phase of schooling using a default language of instruction, which is often English (Lessing and de Witt, 2005; Moss, 2005). According to this study learners’ difficulties with reading literacy, if not addressed, permeate all future educational undertakings as the gap between their reading literacy and the demands of the curriculum widens.

As already stated in 1.2 some South African researchers report learner performance outcomes associated with this educational dilemma (DoE, 2003; Moloi and Strauss, 2005) and others provide as indication of the type of interventions that are considered to promote optimum literate language development for learners (Sailors, 2007), however, teachers remain at the frontline, where these learner assessment results and advocacies are perhaps of little consequences as they deal with the reality of reading literacy teaching to diverse learner populations in schooling contexts which are often less than optimal.

Teachers were not satisfied with the National Curriculum Statement because it involved a great deal of paper work.
1.2.12. The National Curriculum Statement (NCS)

Educators attribute poor reading competence among South African learners to the poorly-introduced Outcomes Based Education (OBE). The OBE curriculum that was announced on 24 March 1997 introduced some radical changes in the education system including some in reading. Chief among the criticisms raised against the new paradigm shift was that it was a borrowed economic package “that was difficult to implement and one which included reading. According to Dick (2001), the language of the OBE is incomprehensibly rigid and uncompromisingly economic in orientation.”

Applying this borrowed concept in education implied applying the ‘fit-all’, shoe-size approach. Teachers complained that they did not understand the principles of OBE and yet they were the implementers. They also indicated a lack of specificity and examples in the NCS. In addition, teachers were instructed to develop a learning programme based on the NCS. There was a need to familiarise teachers with OBE for effective implementation. A survey of 93 Foundation Phase teachers conducted by De Witt, Lessing and Lenyai (2001) showed that half of the participants were not satisfied with their initial training to teach reading to beginners and indicated a need for further training (Lessing and De Witt, 2001).

According to the Department of Basic Education (2008), the Foundation Phase is critical in the sense that it acts as the bedrock that provides basic reading skills which are important in the acquisition of reading skills in subsequent grades. DoE (2008) attributes poor reading standards largely to poor training of teachers who teach reading in the Foundation Phase. After OBE the Department of Basic Education decided to introduce Curriculum 2005 to improve reading in South Africa.
1.2.13. Curriculum 2005 (C2005)

According to the National Curriculum Statement (NCS) for Grade R-9, (DBE, 2001, p.4), OBE is developmental, as it encompasses both what learners learn and are able to do at the end of the learning process. It emphasises high expectations of what all learners can achieve, is a learner-centred educational process that shapes the learning process itself through its outcomes and is an activity-based approach designed to promote problem-solving and critical thinking.

Curriculum 2005 is coupled with the Foundations for Learning (FL), which was a four-year programme which aimed “to create a national focus to improve the reading, writing and numeracy abilities of all South African children” (DBE, 2008, p.4). Coupled with this initiative is the new policy on curriculum which incorporates curriculum and assessment. The researcher decided to conduct research pertaining the challenges faced by teachers in applying reading strategies in the Foundation Phase because it was not evident that teachers were not applying all the necessary strategies, hence there being a problem.

1.3. Statement of the problem

The researcher has been a teacher for 19 years and that includes being a teacher in the Foundation Phase. She noticed that learners were unable to read effectively. Similarly, teachers were unable to apply reading strategies properly. The researcher also suspected that teachers may not have the skills and strategies needed to equip them to deal with difficulties associated with imparting reading skills to the learners of the Foundation Phase. The same concern was also sounded by Mcengwa, (2011)
and Dotwana, (2009). In the ANA results (2012, p.3) the DoE observed that teachers were not receiving adequate professional development in teaching reading.

The Department of Basic Education (2008, p.13) observed that the five critical areas of reading (for example phonics, phonemic awareness, fluency, vocabulary and comprehension) needed to be taught effectively and that teachers should know a range of methods.

Pluddemann, Xola and Thusi (2000, p.69) observed that with no redeployment of appropriately-qualified, African-language-speaking teachers to the relevant schools, communication difficulties between teachers and learners were a problem.

Souden (2008, p.35) states that added to the communication challenge many previously black and coloured schools continue to be overcrowded and under-resourced hence many learners being unable to read. Hurst (2013) in the United States observes that less money means fewer resources and that 50% of teachers also identified lack of available professional development opportunities as significant impediments. Budget decreases lower morale and bring greater stress for teachers, according to the above author.

The Department of Basic Education has observed, with concern, that learners enter the Intermediate Phase in South Africa without the necessary linguistic tools to access the educational curriculum (DBE, 2008, p.9), leaving teachers to face such challenges.

As a result of these challenges the researcher decided to undertake this study, as already stated when discussing poor application of reading strategies. In the light of
the statement of the problem, the researcher poses the following main research question and subsidiary questions presents the objectives of the study.

1.4. The main research question

The main research question is:

What are the challenges faced by teachers in applying relevant reading strategies when teaching reading in the Foundation Phase?

1.5. Subsidiary research questions

The following are the subsidiary questions, which were thoroughly investigated to help identify the challenges faced by teachers in applying strategies in the Foundation Phase:

1. What reading strategies are used by teachers in the Foundation Phase?

2. What type of reading challenges are faced by teachers?

3. To what extent are educators trained to teach reading in the Foundation Phase?

4. What resources are used by Foundation Phase teachers to facilitate the implementation of these strategies?

5. To what extent does the use of the second language affect the performance of Foundation Phase learners?

6. What support do Foundation Phase teachers receive from the DBE in improving reading strategies?
1.6 Aim of the study

The aim of the study is:

- To investigate the challenges faced by teachers

1.7. Objectives

The following are the objectives of the study:

1. To investigate the reading strategies applied by teachers in the Foundation Phase.

2. To investigate the reading challenges faced by teachers in the Foundation Phase.

3. To investigate the training of Foundation Phase teachers to teach reading.

4. To investigate the resources used to facilitate the implementation of reading strategies.

5. To investigate the extent to which the use of second language in the Foundation Phase affects the performance of learners.

6. To establish the type of support the DBE provides to Foundation Phase teachers in improving reading strategies.

1.8. Rationale of the study

The fact that the researcher noted that teachers could not use reading strategies effectively and that the learners found it difficult to do reading tasks prompted the researcher to embark on this study. She sought, firstly, to identify the factors that affect teachers in applying reading strategies in the Foundation Phase. Secondly, the
study was worth undertaking in order to address the expectations of the National Curriculum Statement (NCS) concerning the type of learners envisaged; that is, confident and independent, literate, numerate and multi-skilled.

Many studies have focused on reading literacy in the second language (L2) and in many cases, this is English. To the knowledge of the researcher, few studies have focused on the challenges facing teachers in applying reading strategies and specifically in schools in the Mthatha areas. This study, therefore, aims to contribute in this regard.

1.9. Significance of the study

Generally, it is envisaged that teachers will benefit from awareness of the identified problems. This can help teachers to develop an interest in further studies in reading strategies courses. Teachers can only benefit from the awareness of knowing how to teach reading strategies in the classroom. Teachers can also benefit from being exposed to certain strategies preferred by learners in acquiring reading efficiency. This study should also encourage teachers to organise workshops for themselves and ask the Department of Basic Education (DBE) to run training workshops for all Foundation Phase teachers quarterly and parents must be involved in schools.

The Department of Basic Education is likely to use the recommendations to structure the curriculum so that teachers are properly trained, orientated and work-shopped to apply the reading strategies. It is envisaged it will also assist the policy makers to draft policies that accommodate and emphasise reading so as to improve the general performance of learners. Furthermore, curriculum designers are likely to
design the sort of curriculum that will be understandable and simple enough for both learners and teachers and were also boost the learners’ interest in reading and writing. In this way the study is likely to assist the Department of Education, as well as learners who need to be proficient when faced with English for Academic Purposes (EAP).

1.10. Conceptual framework

Before formulating the theoretical framework, it is necessary to develop a conceptual framework to guide the study in terms of the researcher’s enunciation of the study. A conceptual framework covers the main features of the research design (Holliday, 2001, p.52). It is an organised way of thinking about how and why particular research takes place. Literally, a concept is an image or symbolic representation of an abstract idea.

As has already been stated, this study is based on challenges faced by teachers in applying reading strategies when teaching reading in the Foundation Phase. The study is underpinned by the following concepts: strategies, reading strategies, teaching strategies, teaching methods and approaches, reading methods, teacher training, parental involvement, the language issue, lack of resources, lack of motivation, insufficient time allocation and multilingualism.

Concepts are vehicles of thought that involve images. They are abstract notions and similar definitions of ideas. Concepts are also strongly influenced by previous learning experience (Harre, 1966, p.257).
1.11. Theoretical Framework

This section discusses the theories that place the study in its proper perspective for analysis and interpretation. The theoretical framework is a structure that can hold or support a theory of specific research work. This study was based on two theories known as the Schema Theory and Vygotsky’s Theory.

1.11.1. The Schema Theory

Reading is based on the Schema Theory as a theoretical framework. Schemata are created through experience with people, objects and events in the world. Schemata can be seen as the organised background knowledge which leads us to expect or predict during our interpretation of discourse (Bartlett, 1982, p.223). Bartlett believes that memory of discourse is not based on straight reproductions but is constructive. This constructive process uses information from the encountered discourse together with knowledge from past experience related to the discourse at hand in order to build a mental representation.

Nunan (1999, p.173) views the Schema Theory as a theory based on the notion that experiences lead to the creation of mental frameworks that help us to make sense of new experiences. Nunan further points out that the Schema Theory is closely related to Top-down Theory and has a major impact on reading. It describes in detail how the background knowledge of the learner interacts with the reading task and illustrates how the learner’s knowledge and previous experience with the world is crucial to deciphering a text. The ability to use the Schema Theory or background is fundamental for efficient comprehension to take place.
According to Anderson (1994, p.469), the reader’s schemata affect recall of information in a text, a reader comprehends a message when the reader is able to bring to mind a schema that gives account of objects and events described in the message. This author further explains that comprehension is the activating or construction of a schema that provides a coherent explanation of objects and events mentioned in a discourse. The Schema Theory acknowledges that the reader plays a key role in the construction of meaning.

The reader’s age, gender, experience and culture are the most important considerations for teachers who want to select reading that will motivate their learners. In the view of this author, if readers cannot locate a schema that fits a text, they may find it incomprehensible. At times readers may not have a schema that is pertinent to the text. Bransford (1994) states that, difficulties in comprehension may be attributed to the lack of background required by the text.

Kitao (1990), as quoted by Gunning (1996), explains that the Schema Theory involves an understanding between own knowledge and the text which results in comprehension. The Schema Theory, as defined by Gunning, can be very broad. Each schema is a field in an individual compartment and is stored there. In attempting to comprehend reading materials, learners can relate this new information to the existing knowledge they have compartmentalized in their minds thus adding to these files for future use. Based on the Schema Theory, it depends on how extensive the learners’ files become; however, the degree of reading comprehension may vary.
The schema theorists make a distinction between the formal schemata (knowledge about the structure of the text) and the content schemata (knowledge about the subject matter of the text). Carrel (1919, p. 84) states that prior knowledge of content and the formal schemata both enable readers to predict events and meaning as well as to infer meaning from a wider context. The content schemata refer to the messages of the text and if the topic is familiar, the reading task will be more productive and efficient. Anderson (1994) states that a reader comprehends a message when the reader is able to bring to mind a schema that gives account of the objects and events described in the message.

1.11.2. Nature of schemata

According to Barbara, Larry, David and Georgia (1995), a basic premise of schema theory is that human memory is organised semantically, in other words, memory is organised as a thesaurus rather than a dictionary. They further state that schemata for objects and for abstract entities such as love, hate or fear appear to be very much like concepts. Schemata for actions and events have a dimension that is not associated with concepts.

1.11.3. Application of Schema Theory to ESL readers

Some learners’ apparent reading problems may be “problems of insufficient background knowledge” (Carrell, 1988, p. 245). Where it is thought to be topic-related it has been suggested that “narrow reading” within the learner’s area of knowledge or interest may improve the situation (Carrell and Eistenhold 1983, p.86). Similarly, where schema deficiencies are culture-specific, it could be useful to
provide local texts or texts which are developed from the reader’s own experience. On the other hand, Carrell and Einsteinhold (1983, p. 89) also suggest that “even a culture-specific interference problem, dealt with in the classroom, presents an opportunity to build new culture-specific schemata that will be available for the EFL or ESL learners outside the classroom”. Thus, rather than attempting to neutralise texts, it would seem to be more suitable to prepare learners by “helping them build background knowledge on the topic prior to reading, through appropriate pre-reading activities” (Carrell, 1988, p.245).

Carrell (1988, p.245) lists numerous ways in which relevant schemata may be included through lectures, visual aids, demonstrations, real-life experiences, decisions, role play, text previewing, introductions and discussion of key vocabulary and key words or key concept-association activities; for example, showing pictures of a city before asking the learners to read a text about that city or playing a video clip from a film adaptation of the novel the class is about to study. Although helpful, these pre-reading activities are probably not sufficient alone and teachers will need to supply additional information.

Reading problems are, however, not just caused by schema deficiencies and believing that the “relevant schemata must be activated” (Carrell 1988, p. 105). In other words, readers may come to a text with prior knowledge but their schemata are not necessarily activated while reading, therefore “pre-reading activities must accomplish both goals of building new background knowledge as well as activating existing background knowledge” (Carrell, 1988 p.248).
1.12. Vygotsky’s theory

Vygotsky (1962, p.10) states that with word meaning and concept formation a problem might arise that cannot be solved other than through the formation of new concepts. Vygotsky’s theory states that a child must name the objects and after that read the word. This study is based on the behaviourist learning theory which views reading as important. It involves important skills that need to be acquired, such as word solving, word identification and knowledge of the alphabet before the child is ready to read. Reading readiness is therefore an important aspect of the behaviourist learning model. Behaviourists place great emphasis on the sounding out of words (phonics) and sight-word recognition using flash cards.

1.12.1 Vygotsky’s Theory of Learning and Constructivism

Vygotsky’s Theory of Learning

Vygotsky’s main concern is social interaction and social context; that is, a world full of people who interact with the child from birth onwards are essential in a child’s cognitive development. He states that, “Every function in the child’s cultural development appears twice: first, on the social level, and later, on the individual level: first, between people (inter-psychological) and then inside the child (intra-psychological). This applies equally to voluntary attention, to logical memory and to the formation of concepts. All the higher functions originate as actual relationships between individuals”. (Vygotsky, 1978, p.57).

Next, Vygotsky (1978, p.57) points out that the potential for cognitive development is limited to a certain time span which he names the “zone of proximal development”
(ZPD). In addition, full development during ZPD depends upon full social interaction. The range of skills that can be developed with adult guidance or peer collaboration exceeds what can be attained alone.

Clearly, other people play important roles in helping children to learn, providing projects and bringing ideas to their attention, talking while playing and sharing while playing, reading stories and asking questions. In a wide range of ways, adults mediate the world for children and make it possible for them to get access to it. The ability to learn through instruction and mediation is characteristic of human intelligence.

With the help of adults, children can do and understand more than they can on their own (Cameron, 2008, p.8). Instead of measuring intelligence by what a child can do alone, Vygotsky suggests that intelligence can better be measured by what a child can do with skilled help.

Vygotsky attempted to shed light on consciousness which develops as a result of socialisation. While learning a language, the first utterances have communication purposes, but once internalised, they become “inner speech”. Young children can often be observed talking to themselves and acting as if they are carrying out tasks, or they play in what is called private speech.

As children get older they gradually speak less and less aloud and they can differentiate between social speech for others and “inner speech”, which continues to play an important role in regulating and controlling behaviour. Wertsch (1985) emphasizes that internalisation for Vygotsky is not just transfer but also a
transformation; being able to think about something is qualitatively different from being able to do it. In the internalising process, the interpersonal, joint talk and joint activity later becomes intrapersonal, mental action by one individual.

Development can be seen as internalising from social interaction. Language can grow as the child takes over control of language used initially with other children and adults. Although Vygotsky’s theory is currently most noted for his central focus on the social and modern developments which are labelled ‘sociocultural theory’, he did not neglect the individual or individual cognitive development (Cameron, 2002). In Vygotskian terms, language provides the child with a new tool, opens up new opportunities for doing things and for organizing information through the use of words as symbols.

The infant begins with using single words, but these words convey whole messages. As the child’s language develops, the whole undivided thought message can be broken down into smaller units and expressed by putting together words that are now units of talk. The word is a recognisable linguistic unit for children in their first language and so they will notice words in the new language.

The new language is first used meaningfully by teacher and pupils, and later it is transformed and internalised to become part of the individual child’s language skill or knowledge. Children’s foreign language learning depends on what they experience within the ZPD: the broader and richer the language experience that is provided for children, the more they are likely to learn.
The activities that happen in a classroom create a kind of environment for teaching, and as such, offer different kinds of opportunities for language learning. Part of a teacher’s teaching skill is to identify the particular opportunities of a task or activity and then to develop them into learning experiences for the children (Cameron, 2002, p. 5). The social development theory of Vygotsky has many implications in many theories such as social cognitive theory, situated learning theory and constructivism. The key components explained in Vygotsky’s theory have since been broadened by many researchers.

1.12.2 Classroom applications of Vygotsky Theory

Vygotsky’s concept of the zone of proximal development is based on the idea that development is defined both by what a child can do independently and by what the child can do when assisted by an adult or a more competent peer (Daniels, 1995, Wertsch, 1991). Knowing both levels of Vygotsky’s zone is useful for teachers for these levels indicate where the child is at a given moment as well as where the child is going. The zone of proximal development therefore has several implications for teaching in the classroom.

According to Vygotsky’s theory, for the curriculum to be developmentally appropriate, the teacher must plan activities that encompass not only what children are capable of doing on their own but what they can learn with the help of others (Karpov and Haywood 1988).

Vygotsky’s theory does not mean that anything can be taught to any child; only those instructions and activities that fall within the zone promote development; for
example, if a child cannot identify the sounds in a word even after many prompts, the child may not benefit immediately from instructions in the skill. Practice of previously-known skills and introduction of concepts that are too difficult and complex have little positive impact.

Teachers can use information about both levels of Vygotsky’s zone of proximal development in organising classroom activities in the following ways:

1. Instruction can be planned to provide practice in the zone of proximal development for individual children or for groups of children; for example, hints, and prompts that help children during the assessment could form the basis of instructional activities.

2. Cooperative learning activities can be planned with groups of children at different levels so that they can help each other learn.

3. Scaffolding (Wood, Brunner, Ross, 1976) is a tactic for helping the child in his or her zone of proximal development in which the adult provides hints and prompts at different levels. In scaffolding the adult does not simplify the task, but the role of the learner is simplified “through the graduated intervention of the teacher” (Greenfield, 1984, p 119).

1.13. Delimitations of the study

The study is about the challenges faced by teachers in applying reading strategies in the Foundation Phase. The study is confined to, and conducted in, four selected junior secondary schools in the Mthatha District. Only four schools were used. The study focused on the challenges faced by teachers in applying strategies when
teaching reading in the Foundation Phase. The population consisted of 67 teachers in both schools. A sample size of sixteen Foundation Phase teachers was selected: four teachers in each school.

1.14. Definition of operational terms

The following terms featured prominently in the compilation of the study report and for this reason required the attention of the researcher to provide the contextual definition for their usage.

**Strategy:** This refers to actions that researchers select and control to achieve desired goals and objectives: strategies are intentional and deliberately flexible and adaptable: strategies require reasoning and involve metacognition (Dole, Buffy, Rochler and Pearson, 1991, p.89).

**Reading strategies:** Reading strategies are ways of solving problems that the learners may come across while reading (DBE, 2008: p. 21). A reading strategy is an activity or a series of activities that aids comprehension and plays an important role in reading (Arabsolghar and Elkins, 2001). Carrel (1991), as quoted by Cekiso (2007) reading strategies are of interest for what they reveal about ways readers manage interactions with written text and for how strategies are related to reading comprehension. Reading strategies are important in any reader, though there are different reading strategies preferred by different learners depending on their uniqueness.
A child’s success at school and throughout life depends largely on the ability to read and understand the texts. Teachers, especially those teaching in the foundation phase, have the profound challenge of making reading a reality for all learners.

Professional development is essential for teachers to develop knowledge of teaching reading. Research has to be done on how to support teachers in the teaching of reading and to indicate which strategies to use when teaching reading. Teachers should know how theories should link with practice during teaching reading in the classrooms and why strategies can assist learners to construct meaning independently from the text. More research on the impact of reading material, time, language and workshops is critical. Teachers need in-depth, hands-on training and also guided practice for developing lessons and activities using their content material to teach strategies to learners. They also need to know the basis or precursors of comprehension and how reading comprehension develops.

**Literacy:** UNESCO (2001, p.67) defines literacy as “the ability to identify, understand, interpret, create, communicate and compute, using printed and written materials associated with varying contexts”.

**Foundation Phase:** The term ‘Foundation Phase’ refers to Grades R-3, and includes learners from six to nine years of age (DoE White Paper 5, Document Grades R-3, 1997, p.9). This is a four-year phase, starting with the Reception year. The learning programmes which are important in this phase are Numeracy, Literacy and Life Skills. Davis (1994, p.9-12) affirms that during this phase a learner develops in totality, that is, as a physical being who develops control over his/her gross and fine motor coordination, as a psycho-social being who is able to control his/her
emotions, and as a cognitive being who is able to comprehend the surrounding world. This is the phase in which the foundation of learning is laid effectively and is a critical time when interest in education is promoted, and positive attitudes towards school and self-concepts are developed. Joshua (2006, p.10) maintains that if a child fails at this stage, he or she will be adversely affected and may even drop out of the schooling system before having had an opportunity to explore his or her learning potential.

**Performance:** This is the accomplishment of a given task measured against a preset, known standard of accuracy, completeness, cost and speed (Business dictionary.com). Performance in this study refers to the ability of learners to do certain tasks given to them by their teachers after being taught how to do them.

**Support:** Support can be defined as all activities that increase the capacity of a school to respond to diversity. A supportive environment, where there is collaboration amongst teachers, district officials, principals, parents and learner support, teachers are key to successful implementation of school policies. According to Calitz (2000, p.16), support may involve a group of colleagues who are available to assist learners experiencing barriers to learning.

Most effective professional development happens in schools during the school days with peers, teacher, principal, district officials and parents. Principals support teachers by developing a school literacy plan. District Officials establish policies that support effective literacy instruction. Parents must be informed about their involvement which is required in encouraging and promoting reading at home. A
literacy support teacher models effective reading strategies (Early Reading Strategy, 2003, p.53).

**The Foundation Phase learner:** The Foundation Phase learner learns mainly through play. Reading activities need to be incorporated into play so that children are gradually eased into formal reading activities. In the Foundation Phase, all learning areas are integrated into the three learning programmes called (Literacy, Numeracy and Life Skills). Reading is formally taught in the Literacy learning programme.

**Reading methods:** According to Ogie (1996, p.106), reading methods are techniques and strategies for reading. How teachers teach and make learners learn how to read successfully in the Foundation Phase is what is referred to as teaching methods in this study.

**Language policy:** This is the means by which governments and other groups set out their intentions to safeguard, develop and exploit the capacity in languages among the people they represent in a country (The National Centre for Languages)

**1.15. Outline of chapters**

The following form the outline of the chapters in the study to be presented on completion of the dissertation.

Chapter 1: Chapter 1 states the topic for this study; it also provides the introduction and gives a background. The problem to be investigated is discussed, including the main and subsidiary research questions. The objectives are stated as well as the delimitations and limitations. In addition, the rationale and significance are stated.
The contextual meanings of major concepts that will feature prominently in the study are also provided, including a summary.

Chapter 2: Chapter 2 discusses the literature reviewed in order to be able to place this study in its prospective context and to be able to identify and establish the gaps.

Chapter 3: Chapter 3 discusses the methodological choice and application. Detailed provision in this respect has to be provided to place the study in its proper methodological paradigmatic perspective. Ethical considerations are noted as well as the measures of trustworthiness.

Chapter 4: Chapter 4 discusses the collected data treatment, analysis and interpretation to give meaning to the data collected as well as triangulation.

Chapter 5: In Chapter 5 findings revealed by the collected data are listed, recommendations are proposed, a summary of the study is presented, implications of the study are discussed, Cwebas’ proposed model is described and conclusions are drawn.

1.16. Summary

In this chapter, the researcher discussed the relevant background to the study, the theoretical frame work which covered the schema theory, conceptual framework and the statement of the problem in which the main research problem was identified. The delimitations of the study, wherein the researcher discussed the extent and scope of the study, were also dealt with.
CHAPTER 2

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

This chapter focuses on the relevant literature on studies related to the research topic in order to place the study in its proper perspective. It provides a description of how different studies contributed to the problem under investigation. A literature review helps to give a clear formulation of the problem (MacMillan and Schumacher, 2006).

2.2 The importance of reading in the Foundation Phase

Reading is a foundational skill that all children need if they are to succeed in life. As one of the four language skills in which learners need to be versed in their earliest years in formal schooling, reading builds the foundation for all formal learning in school (Teale, 2003, p.114). If learners do not acquire this skill in the Foundation Phase they will struggle to catch up, even with the help of remedial teaching, and will not progress at school. Similarly, reading forms the basis of all language skills, particularly writing, because the ability to write depends on the ability to read, and what is written can only be meaningful if it can be read (Stahl, 2004, p.57). Reading and writing are, therefore, mutually supportive, essential to success in any society and highly valued and important for both social and economic advancement.

Reading problems are endemic in South Africa, with recent media reports on the high matriculation (matric) failure rate indicating that most learners still cannot read or write and thus bring down the overall matric performance (Department of Basic
Education, DBE, 2010, p.30). There has also been a report of cases in which learners in higher grades continue to battle to read and write, even to write their names (Barone, 2005, p.47). The frustration shared by many Senior Phase teachers suggests problems at the Foundation Phase, with the inability to read and write identified as one of the major causes of poor academic performance of learners across the country (Johnson, 2006, p.25).

Wolf (2007), highlights that the point of reading is comprehension and the point of comprehension is learning. Children who fail to learn to read in the few grades of school are handicapped in later grades because they must absorb increasing amounts of instructional content in print form. Poor readers cannot develop proper writing skills or become self-guided learners in other subjects. The basic reading skills necessary to become “literate” do not develop naturally, learners have to learn to adapt the part of their brain that recognises images to be able to recognise written letters and words (Wolf, 2007).

Jimenez and O’ Shanahan Juan, 2008, Linan-Thompson and Vaugan, 2007, Abadzi, 2006, Sprenger-Charolles, (2004), Chiappe et al, (2002) confirmed that mostly any alphabetic language in which print can be decoded, broken apart mentally into sounds and being able to read well requires a grasp of five basic skills. According to National Reading Panel (2000) these skills are:

1. Phonemic awareness – focusing on manipulating, breaking apart and putting together sounds orally.

2. Phonics – linking written letters to their sounds and forming spelling patterns.
3. Fluency – achieving speed, accuracy and expression in reading.

4. Vocabulary – knowing words (both oral and written) and their meaning. 5. Comprehension – understanding the concepts read or ahead.

**Stages of reading development**

Roskos *et al* (2009) state that while two children will develop their reading skills at exactly the same rate, readers will progress through stages in their reading developments, some simultaneously. Every reader progress through the first three stages of reading while simultaneously building and applying comprehension skills. Once the learners have become proficient readers their focus will shift to more complex comprehension strategies and interaction with the text.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Stage</th>
<th>Name</th>
<th>The learner</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Stage 0:</td>
<td>Emergent Literacy</td>
<td>Gains control read and recognises rhyme</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Birth to Grade 1</td>
<td>Gains control</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Gains control</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stage 1:</td>
<td>Decoding</td>
<td>Grows aware of sounds relationships, focuses on printed symbols, attempt to break code print and uses decoding to figure out words.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Beginning Grade 1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stage 2:</td>
<td>Confirmation and fluency</td>
<td>Develops fluency in reading, recognises patterns in words, check the meaning and sense knows a stock of sight words.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>End of Grade 1 to End Grade 3</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stage 3:</td>
<td>Learning the</td>
<td>Uses reading as a tool for learning, applies</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 1: Shows the stages of reading development of the learner

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Grade 4 to Grade 8</th>
<th>new reading strategies, expands reading vocabulary.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Stage 4: Secondary and Early Higher Education</td>
<td>Multiple viewpoints Analyses what is read, reacts critically to texts, deals with layers of facts and concepts.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stage 5: Late Higher Education and Graduate School</td>
<td>A worldview Develops a well-rounded view of the world through reading.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2.3 Reading Development and Instruction

According to Tankersley (2003), reading is a complex process made up of several interlocking skills and processes. These skills and strategies are employed before, during and after reading. He further states that effective readers employ a wide repertoire of meaning-making (comprehension) strategies that they can deploy independently with a range of texts. Effective readers understand and remember what they read. He also states that effective readers recognise words quickly and effectively. They demonstrate high word recognition.

2.4 Reading processes used by the skillful reader

Reading comprehension is what allows the reader to interact with the text in a meaningful way.

Reading comprehension cannot develop in a haphazard way. Hence, the importance of activities before, during and after reading to enhance reading comprehension (Chia 2001; Dole 2000; Allen 2003; Adler 2004; Wessels 2010). The teacher should,
therefore, plan strategically before the reading comprehension lesson so that effective teaching and learning can take place. Teachers must be conversant with theories and comprehension strategies related to reading comprehension in order to equip learners to develop and apply reading strategies appropriately during reading (National Reading Panel (NRP) 2000; National Institute of Child Health and Human Development (NICHHD) 2002). This enhances learners’ understanding of the text because the purpose of reading is to read with understanding, so that one can use the information in various ways. Finding the deeper meaning of the text requires use comprehension strategies when reading in order to gain the necessary information. Strategies might also help learners to monitor the process of comprehension. As a result, the learner develops an interest in reading because he/she can make meaning from the written words.

Chia 2001; Dole 2000; Allen 2003; Adler 2004; Wessels 2010 state that before reading, the reader reads the title, looks at the content page and index pages, reads the sub-headings and titles and looks at the illustrations. The skilful reader uses this information to predict what the text is about. During reading, the reader reads a range of words ‘on sight’ without needing to break them into syllables and letters. The reader keeps checking that the meaning of the text is clear. The reader gets a general idea of the meaning of an unfamiliar word by reading the sentence or paragraph and breaking the word down into sounds. After reading the reader links the content of the text to his or her own ideas and experiences. The reader remembers new words and their meaning when seeing them again in other contexts.
2.5 Teaching reading to children from impoverished backgrounds

Two key resources needed to teach reading are good teachers and appropriate reading material. In the South African context, rural schools often lack one or both of these resources. Moore and Hart (2007, p. 26) describe this situation as ‘problems within the system’. In disadvantaged and poor schools, lack of additional financial support makes it virtually impossible for teachers to make the classroom conducive to reading. These teachers rely on readers which they borrowed to other schools to teach reading. Other resources like charts, newspapers and books are almost always absent. The physical classroom environment is also not conducive to maintaining a well-resourced class. Teaching reading in this type of environment is therefore very challenging (Pretorius & Machet 2004, p. 59).

Human resource development and training is crucial in this type of environment, as is the manner in which basic reading resources are used (Buchorn-Stoll 2002, p.44). By skilling the teachers in effective reading strategies using limited resources, reading can be taught successfully. A How to Teach Reading, course or workshop can help teachers in rural and poor schools (Lessing & De Witt 2002, p.286). Reading material, however, is generally not freely available in such areas, therefore, teachers need to arrange for mobile libraries to visit the area. Choice of readers, textbooks is also very important, since this is probably the only resource that will be available.
2.6 Interactive components of effective reading instruction

2.6.1 Goals of reading instructions

Saskatchewan education (2001, p.13) in Canada states that reading is the process of constructing meaning from a written text. Effective early reading instruction enables all learners to become fluent readers who comprehend what they are reading and can apply and communicate their knowledge and skills, and in some contexts this provides a strong motivation to read. The three main goals of reading instruction are:

Fluency: This is the ability to identify words accurately and read text quickly with good expression. Fluency comes from practice in reading easy books about familiar subjects; these texts contain familiar, high-frequency words so that the learner will encounter few unfamiliar words. As the learners develop fluency, they improve in their ability to read more expressively. This is the ability to understand, reflect on, and learn from the text. To ensure that learners develop comprehension skills, effective reading instruction builds on their prior knowledge and experience of language skills and higher-level thinking.

Motivation: To read is the essential element for actively engaging learners in the reading process. It is the fuel that lights the fire and keeps it burning. Learners need to be versed in a literacy-rich environment filled with books, poems, pictures, charts and other resources that capture their interest and encourage them to read for information and pleasure. These three goals are interconnected and the strategies for achieving them work together synergistically.
2.6.2 Knowledge and skills for reading

According to Saskatchewan education (2003, p.13), learners need to learn a variety of skills and strategies in order to become proficient readers. In the earliest stages, learners need to understand what reading is about and how it works. Some learners will have already grasped the basic concepts before entering school, but many will need an expert to set the context of reading. When learners first experience formal reading instructions in school, they need to learn specific things about oral language, letters and words; they need to understand how it works, and be able to connect print with the sounds and word in oral language. The role of the Foundation Phase teachers, working as a team, is to move children from the earliest awareness of print to the reading-to-learn stage, where they will become independent, successful and motivated readers (Ministry of Education, 2003).

According to the Department of Basic Education (2001), the knowledge and skills that learners need in order to read with fluency and comprehension include: oral language, prior knowledge and experience, concepts about print, phonemic awareness, letter-sound relationships, vocabulary, semantics and syntax, metacognition and higher-order thinking skills. These are interrelated components that support and build on each other.

Oral language: Learners come to reading with oral language experience; learners acquire most of what they know about oral language by listening and speaking with others, including their families, peers and teachers. It states that through experience with oral language, learners build the vocabulary, semantic knowledge (awareness of meaning) and syntactic knowledge (awareness of structure) that form a
foundation of reading and writing. Learners who are proficient in oral language have a sound beginning for reading; this knowledge allows them to identify words accurately and to predict and interpret what the written language says and means. Not all learners begin school with a solid foundation in oral language; some learners come from language-impoverished backgrounds where they have little opportunity to develop a rich vocabulary and complete language structures. The Department of Basic Education (2001) further states that these learners may not be the native speakers of English. Learners with mild leaning impairment may find it difficult to make fine distinctions between similar speech sounds. They require instruction that increases their oral language abilities (including phonemic awareness, vocabulary, listening comprehension and the oral expression of ideas) in conjunction with reading skills.

2.6.3 Modelling language

Department of Basic Education (2001) further states that for the benefit of all learners, teachers should constantly model language structures that are more elaborate and varied than the ones learners use outside of school, and should engage the learners in using these structures and variations for themselves. Learners need frequent opportunities to ask and answer questions, participate in discussions and classify information in order to develop their capacity for higher-order thinking.
2.6.4 Prior knowledge and experience

Saskatchewan education (2001) supported by Saskatchewan education (2002) states that in order that learners may understand what they are reading, it is important that they come to the text with a variety of experiences that will allow them to appreciate the concepts embedded in the text. These experiences enable them to anticipate the content and such anticipation leads to easier decoding of the text and deeper understanding of its meaning. Prior knowledge and experience refers to the world of understanding that learners bring to school.

Research on the early stages of learning indicates that learners begin to make sense of their world at a very young age. Ministry of Education states that learners enter school from a variety of countries and cultures. Thus their prior knowledge and experiences may differ considerably from those of their classmates and teachers, and they may find it difficult to relate to the context and content of the resources generally used in Ontario classrooms. Teachers need to be aware of learners’ backgrounds, cultures and experiences in order to provide appropriate instructions.

2.6.5 Concepts about print

Concepts about print are also important: When learners first encounter print they are not aware that the symbols on the page represent spoken language or that they carry meaning. The term “concept about print” refers to awareness of how language is conveyed in print. These concepts include directionality (knowing that English text is read from left to right and top to bottom), differences between letters and words, awareness of capitalisation, punctuation, digenetic signs (such as accents in English)
and common characteristics of books, such as the font, title and author (Ministry of Education, 2003).

Young learners can, however, be taught these concepts by interacting with and observing experienced readers (including teachers and family members) who draw their attention to print and give them opportunities to demonstrate their understanding of the concepts. Teachers need to provide learners with a variety of printed materials for practise, including books, charts and environmental print (such as signs and labels).

2.6.6 Phonemic awareness

According to the National Reading Panel (2000), phonemic awareness and letter-sound knowledge amount to more of the variation in early reading and spelling success than general intelligence, overall maturity level or listening comprehension. They are the basis for leaning an alphabetic writing system. Saskatchewan (2002), states that learners who have phonemic awareness are able to identify and manipulate the individual sounds in oral language. Learners need to learn that the words we say are made up of sounds. According to the Learning First Allowance (2000, p.14), in order for learners to develop phonemic awareness, teachers need to engage them in playing with and manipulating the sounds of language. Phonemic awareness prepares learners for decoding and encoding the sounds of the language in print.
2.6.7 Semantics, syntax and pragmatics

These are important terms. Semantics refers to meaning in language, including the meaning of words, phrases and sentences. Syntax refers to the predictable structure of a language and the ways that words are combined to form phrases, clauses and sentences. Semantic and syntactic knowledge are important because they help children to identify words in context and lead to deeper levels of comprehension. Beginning readers may not need to be able to define a noun or verb, but they need to understand that a word (a noun) can represent a thing or an action, depending on the context (Ministry of Education, 2003, p.18). Teachers need to model correct sentence structures so that learners can learn to anticipate these structures when reading print.

Teachers also need to familiarise learners with a variety of language structures and to encourage the use of longer, more complex sentences. Saskatchewan education (2003 p.19) states that pragmatics which is introduced in the later primary years, is the study of how people choose what they say or write from the range of possibilities available in the language, and how listeners or readers are affected by those choices. The same author also states that pragmatics involves understanding how the context influences the way sentences convey information. A sentence can have different purposes depending on the situation or context in which it is used; context clues that surround an unfamiliar word help the reader to figure out the word’s meaning.
2.6.8 Metacognition and comprehension strategies

This play a vital role in reading: Comprehension is the reason for reading. If readers can identify the words but do not understand what they are reading, learners have not achieved the goal of reading comprehension. To gain a good understanding of the text, learners must bring to it the foundational knowledge and skills of oral language, prior knowledge and experience, concepts about print, phonemic awareness, letter sound relationships, vocabulary, semantics and syntax (Education, 2001). Moreover, learners must integrate what they bring to the text with the text itself.

In order to read to learn, learners need to use problem-solving and thinking processes; learners must reflect on what they know and need to know (metacognition) and draw on a variety of comprehension strategies to make sense of what they read. Good readers plan and monitor their reading at a metacognitive level. What those learners are doing is thinking about the strategies to make sense of the text. Learners must, therefore, evaluate their reading to determine the best strategy for improving their understanding of the text.

Learners who read at a metacognition level know the strategies that affect their own reading (e.g. decoding hard words, connecting text with prior experiences, understanding word meanings, identifying main ideas, drawing inferences from the text and synthesising information). These learners use a variety of strategies to decode and understand text and to know when and why to apply particular strategies.
Ministry of Education in Canada states that teachers play an important role in modelling how to think; metacognitive skills help learners to figure out what they know and what they need to know. Comprehension strategies are conscious plans that readers use to make sense of the text.

2.6.9 Higher order thinking skills

Higher order thinking skills are just that: According to Bloom (1956, p. 261), the development of higher-order thinking skills is essential throughout the primary grades. In the early stages of reading development higher-order thinking can be developed at the oral level through the teacher engaging in read-aloud and shared reading. In the reading-to-learn stage, classroom teachers need to ask learners questions that challenge them to move beyond what they recall of the text and on to what they understand through application, analysis, synthesis and evaluation. Bloom’s taxonomy is a useful tool for helping teachers to engage learners in higher-order thinking when they read. Higher-order thinking is what enables learners to achieve the standard for reading which Level 3 in the Ontario curriculum expects.

When the DoE noticed that Foundation Phase learners were unable to read, the DoE introduced an assessment tool for learners, which is called the Annual National Assessment (ANA).

2.7 Annual National Assessment in reading as a bench mark in South Africa

According to the Department of Basic Education (2012), the Annual National Assessment (ANA) is an essential initiative at the heart of the Education Sector Plan,
Action Plan to 2014: Towards the Realisation of Schooling 2025. It further states that the key thrust and long-term focus of the Sector Plan, hereafter referred to as the Action Plan, is to improve the quality of basic education. The Action Plan outline is clear and provides measurable outcomes that the Sector has identified within the priorities of government. In particular, the improvement of the quality of basic education has been identified as the top priority of government and which the Department of Basic Education (DBE) has to deliver. Within this context, ANA is a critical measure for monitoring progress in achieving set targets in terms of learner achievement.

The Education Sector Plan, Action Plan to 2014: Towards the Realisation of Schooling 2025, specifies that ANA is a testing programme that requires all schools in the country to conduct the same grade-specific Language and Mathematics tests for Grades 1 to 6 and Grade 9. The relevance of this is because Grade 2 and 3 fall into the ANA and need to be monitored. The Department further states that the choice of subjects to prioritise for monitoring has been informed by the recognition worldwide of Literacy and Numeracy as the key foundational skills that predispose learners to effective learning in all fields of knowledge. Grade R-3 reading skills are therefore very important.

Several measures, such as the provision of workbooks and the repackaging of the National Curriculum Statement in the form of the Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement were put in place in 2015 to improve education. In addition, the DBE also provided exemplar questions and exemplar tests to schools in the course of the year.
in order to ensure that teachers and learners were exposed to the kind of questions they could expect in the Annual National Assessment.

All learners in public schools in Grades 1 to 6 and Grade 9 took curriculum-appropriate tests developed by the DBE in Language in September 2012. Marking guides/memorandums were made available to all schools and tests were marked by the relevant teachers. Departmental procedures and control measures were in place to ensure that marking was done correctly. Learner scores were captured on a central database to provide system-wide information on learner achievement at all levels of governance as one of the measures to inform constructive engagement in order to improve education. While marking the scripts of learners, teachers received immediate feedback on the strengths and weaknesses of their learners. Schools reported learner achievement in ANA to each parent. The overall results for ANA in Grades 1 to 6 point towards a general improvement in the performance of learners in the ANA tests. In the summary tables below, the average percentage that learners achieved in Language is indicated. It is relevant because Foundation Phase (Grade R-3) were tested.

Learners of the Foundation Phase before writing ANA in September, must register so that the DBE know how many learners will be able to write ANA in that particular year.

**Learner Registration**

One of the critical areas of weakness with the management of the 2011 ANA was the capturing of learner data from approximately 20 000 schools and six million learners, therefore, the establishment of a dependable national learner database
was of critical importance in the implementation of ANA 2012. It was imperative that
the Department of Basic Education (DBE), together with the Provincial Education
Departments (PEDs), establish a well-defined registration process supported by a
dependable Information Technology (IT) system to ensure that the 2012 ANA data
would be accurately captured and processed. This would also facilitate a high degree
of precision in the planning and preparation of ANA activities. The statistics
generated from the database would provide specific assessment information on
learners currently enrolled in Grades 1 to 6 and 9 in all public and participating
independent schools.

At the start of the school year in January 2012, each school completed a registration
form for their learners participating in the 2012 ANA. The registration form required
a class level, the language of learning and teaching (LOLT), unique identifier
information for each learner, the assessment level (HL or FAL) for testing and an
indication of the special needs category, if applicable. The registration forms were
collected by the districts and submitted to a service provider, based in each province
that took responsibility for the capturing of the registration data. After the data were
captured on the IT system, registration schedules of the captured data were printed
and submitted to schools for validation by school principals. Corrections were
indicated on the school schedules and these were captured on the IT system.
 Provincial officials ensured that the registration process was correctly and accurately
completed for all public and state-funded independent school. The registration
process closed in August 2012.
The statistics on registered learners are reflected in Table 2. It is relevant because Foundation Phase learners had to be included in the data base.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PROVINCES</th>
<th>Grade 1</th>
<th>Grade 2</th>
<th>Grade 3</th>
<th>Grade 4</th>
<th>Grade 5</th>
<th>Grade 6</th>
<th>Grade 9</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Eastern Cape</td>
<td>215</td>
<td>321</td>
<td>179</td>
<td>411</td>
<td>163</td>
<td>149</td>
<td>158</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Free State</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>665</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>178</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>139</td>
<td>53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gauteng</td>
<td>195</td>
<td>601</td>
<td>172</td>
<td>495</td>
<td>157</td>
<td>972</td>
<td>150</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kwa Zulu Natal</td>
<td>287</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>247</td>
<td>075</td>
<td>221</td>
<td>499</td>
<td>218</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Limpopo</td>
<td>145</td>
<td>242</td>
<td>132</td>
<td>425</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>256</td>
<td>121</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mpumalanga</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>298</td>
<td>104</td>
<td>040</td>
<td>91</td>
<td>871</td>
<td>93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Northern Cape</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>260</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>939</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>566</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>North West</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>594</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>101</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>368</td>
<td>64</td>
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<tr>
<td>Western Cape</td>
<td>103</td>
<td>425</td>
<td>88</td>
<td>477</td>
<td>81</td>
<td>498</td>
<td>83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>National</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>237</td>
<td>492</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>080</td>
<td>141</td>
<td>974</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2: Learners’ registration for ANA
2.8 General strategies used by teachers to teach reading

Teachers used many strategies to teach learners so that they acquire reading skills properly. There are strategies which motivate learners:

2.8.1 Motivation strategies

According to Barbara, Larry, David and Georgia (1995, p.162), the teacher must keep in mind that, ultimately, motivation has to come from the learners themselves if they are to become habitual readers outside of a school setting. Activities presented can help learners develop a positive disposition towards reading by providing successful experiences in reading, by making reading personally meaningful and useful, and by enabling the reader to become active learners.

2.8.1.1 Reading aloud

Learners of all ages seem to enjoy listening to a skilful presentation of good literature by choosing carefully what to share. A teacher can expose learners of various reading abilities to literature they might not select on their own (Barbara et al. 1995, p. 173). They also state that through discussion and explanation, a learner’s attention can be focused on the characterisation, plot development and use of language. Teachers who regularly read aloud attest to the power of activity for creating interest in the book.
2.8.1.2 Displaying evidence of book reading

Hillerch describes a multitude of ways to encourage learners to read. A bookworm is cut out of sections of coloured paper and posted on the classroom walls. On each section the title of a book and the name of a learner who has read it are written. He also states that the bookworm grows as books are completed and recorded on new sections that are added to the bookworm’s body by members of the class. The body of the bookworm curves over and around bulletin boards, windows, doors and chalkboards. He further states that variations of the bookworm idea can range from paper footprints on the walls that carry out a big foot theme to paper leaves on branches of a tree.

2.8.1.3 Using comic books

Barbara et al (1995, p.175) state that it might seem odd, even self-defeating, to encourage the use of comic books in school. Comic books often compete directly with trade books for the learner’s time. Comic books are included because they are so prevalent. Learners will continue to read them despite the contempt teachers may hold for them. It seems better to recognise the popularity of comic books and take advantage of the interest they engender. The writers also state that using comic books in schools is useful as many of them are extremely easy to read and consequently can be used to help some unsuccessful and reluctant readers develop a sense of personal accomplishment.
2.8.1.4 Group process strategy

Two group process strategies gaining popularity among classroom teachers are cooperative learning and peer tutoring. These strategies have been proven effective with many learners and especially with low-achieving learners. The literature indicates that working in small groups may be motivating for several reasons (Glasser, 1986, p. 120). He points out that learners have strong desires to affiliate and, accordingly, often come to school to be with their friends, thus cooperative learning and peer tutoring can be beneficial. They provide means for learners to share and take risks without feeling that they are cheating when they help someone else. Learner fear can occur in more traditional approaches where learners work independently.

According to Davidson and O’ Leary (1990, p.63), cooperative groups are useful in the variety of ways for motivating learners. Groups provide:

Intrinsic motives – interest, curiosity and desire for understanding often arise in group explorations.

Social motives – evidenced or demonstrated by statements such as “we are all in this together” and “I want to do my part well and not let the group down”.

Ego integrative motives – when group members acknowledge, recognise or praise each other’s contributions.

Sense of competence – learners in groups often develop a confidence in their own abilities to reason and to solve problems.

Active participation - cooperative group fosters active participation which in itself is motivating for many learners.
2.8.1.5 Using games to motivate reading

Learners of all ages are attracted to games. Electronic games have been especially popular in recent years. Teachers have long appreciated the high interest games have for learners. Daniels (1971 p.232) describes ways in which games can be incorporated into the reading curriculum in a substantial way. Games can contribute to the development of reading ability in several ways: many games call for a certain limited amount of reading such as reading the directions for the game, reading labels on a playing board and reading cards that the player draws during his or her turn. He also states that games that fall in this category are monopoly, password etc. One might, however, reason that the amount of time spent playing a game could better be spent reading a book if practice in reading is the goal.

2.8.1.6 The language-experience approach

The language-experience approach has been described in considerable detail in a variety of sources. It is an approach to reading and writing instruction that involves story dictation, chart development and group oral reading. The fact that learners write their own stories makes this approach highly motivating (Henderson, 1988. p.86).

2.9 Strategies of reading comprehension

Guthrie and Winfield (2000) state that lack of knowledge may seem to be contributing towards negative attitudes amongst both the teachers and the learners. When teachers do not know what to do, it will certainly affect the learners. Teachers lack knowledge with regard to comprehension strategies in various ways. It is
important that teachers must teach learners to use comprehension strategies. Strategies are important since they assist learners when the comprehension process breaks down and restores meaning as they read (Dole 2000; NAP 2000; Myers 2005). It is important that teachers must have the practical and theoretical knowledge about the various strategies and how to apply them practically in the classroom. Teachers were unsure of what to do during teaching reading comprehension. They did not feel that they had acquired the knowledge base and competencies needed for the proper teaching of reading. Teachers did not discuss strategies or teach learners strategies for comprehending the text. Several authors (Kragler, Walker and Martin 2005; Pearson and Duke 2002; Sweet and Snow 2003; Reutzel, Smith and Fawson 2005) confirm that many primary-grade teachers have not always emphasised comprehension instruction in their curriculum.

Reading comprehension has strategies that an individual needs to acquire in order to approach a task. Gunning (1996, p. 187) has identify four strategies. They are:

- Organisational
- Monitoring
- Pre-operational
- Elaboration

- Organisational strategies are strategies that select important details and build relationship from them. Organisational strategies may include the identification of main ideas and topic, sentences and classifying information so as to decide which one is relevant. Sequencing and summarising are also included. Each of these strategies is complex and methods for improving them need to be taught.
Gunning (1996) defines monitoring as being aware of one’s own mental process when reading. Monitoring occurs when a reader is aware that they do not understand what has just been read. The act of monitoring is about knowing how to go back and find a way to gain understanding of the topic and also knowing when to use the three other types of reading strategies.

Pre-operational strategies are those strategies that activate prior knowledge about a particular topic. A pre-operational strategy is used to get learners to think about the topic they are about to work on. It is much easier to relate knowledge about a subject when the learners are familiar with the subject area. Gunning (1996) also identifies prediction as a type of pre-operational structure which involves previewing parts of the text as helpful e.g. previewing of pictures, titles and the cover of the book.

Elaboration is about the processing of text by the reader which involves forming a connection between the text and the reader’s background knowledge of the subject. The reader is able to make inferences, pictures images and asks questions as these are all types of elaboration strategies. Huffman (1998, p. 243) and Claire 2005, p. 87) identify K-W-L as an elaboration strategy which connects background knowledge to the topic to be addressed. This describes what we KNOW, what we WANT to know and what we LEARNED (K-W-L). The first two steps assess the background information and the last is completed afterwards to make connections.

Pressley (2000) states that comprehension strategies are the centrepiece of the literacy curriculum. Reading comprehension refers to the understanding of printed text. Proficient readers engage in an intentional problem-solving process to
comprehend. He also states that the process has a before, during and after component. Most readers who are explicitly taught reading comprehension skills and strategies are likely to learn, develop and use them spontaneously. Collins and Pressley (2001) list critical reading comprehension skills and strategies as the ability to:

- Summarise
- Predict
- Develop questions
- Clarify
- Relate the content of the text to personal experience and knowledge
- Monitor understanding of the text and
- Determine and connect important ideas to construct meaning

Collins and Pressley also state that teachers need to explicitly describe these comprehension strategies and explain to learners when and how they should be used. Teachers also need to model the strategies in action, for example by thinking aloud, teachers need to guide practice with a gradual release of responsibility so that learners eventually make the strategies their own. Teachers also need to show learners how the strategies can be applied in order to comprehend oral, print and other media.
2.10 Components of reading comprehension skills and strategies

Collins, Block and Pressley (2002) state that many reading strategies have been developed by numerous researchers. They outline several categories of comprehension strategies that have been found to be successful:

Comprehension monitoring: Learners are taught how to be aware of their understanding of the material.

Question generation: Learners are taught to ask themselves questions about various aspects of the story.

Use of graphic and semantic organizers: Learners are taught how to graphic presentations of the reading material.

Prior knowledge: Learners are taught to relate the content of the text to their personal lives and attempt to make predictions based on knowledge.

Mental imagery: Learners are taught to create pictures in their homes that represent the text they have read.

Summarisation: Learners are taught to find main ideas.

Question answering: Learners answer questions posed by the teacher and receive immediate feedback.

2.10.1 Reading Comprehension activities.

Self-questioning strategies (Alberta Education 1996, p. 128) are used by proficient readers who frequently self-monitor their reading, for example, they often stop
while reading to ensure they are comprehending the material they are reading. Alberta Education (1996) also states that learners ask themselves, “Does this make sense?” If not, they will go back to where they were “connected” with the text. It is important for teachers to model self- questioning strategies. Self-questioning helps learners to monitor and comprehend the material being read.

The reciprocal teaching strategy is, according to Palinscar and Brown (1984, p. 264), when the teacher models steps prior to learners using the strategy in the following steps:

- Predict what will happen in the text by using headings, pictures charts and any other information that might be helpful.

- Read the passage independently or together

- Teacher formulates questions about what was read

- Summarise the important information

- Clarify any information that is difficult to understand and check meaning of any new vocabulary

- Predict what might occur later in the text

**2.10.2 Why questions**

The Learning Disabilities Association of Canada (1999, p.34) states that as learners read, they lightly write in the margin the appropriate cue (one of the 5 Ws) and highlight the pertinent information for example, “What is your name?, Where do you
come from?”. It also states that after reading, the learners go back to the cues and use them as the basis for making notes and reviewing the content.

**2.10.3 Forming a mental picture**

For a mental picture, the teacher reads out aloud a variety of descriptions and the learners follow in the text. The teacher must begin with familiar descriptions or simple ones. The teacher will encourage learners to try to picture the above in their minds. The teacher then asks the learners to do a follow-up activity: The teacher must match the description to the picture, must draw a picture, write a response and write a descriptive sentence and present it to the group.

The Learning Disabilities Association of Canada also states that once the learners have developed this skill learners should silently read a descriptive passage and do one of the activities. The teacher must encourage learners to see what they are reading and to study the details and colours.

Peer-assisted learning: Learners work in pairs and discuss what they have read. After learners have read the passage, learners discuss the content.

The researcher has discussed the strategies used by teachers. Strategies deemed appropriate for early grades are discussed below:

**2.11 Strategies which are appropriate in earlier grades**

Hong (1996, p.205) states that these are strategies which the teacher can use to assist learners in making mental associations between what they have read and their
own personal experiences. The learner can also interpret mental associations and create summaries of what they found important in the text. The strategies are:

- Summarisation which includes such activities as substituting categories for a list of items, integrating a series of events with a descriptive action term and selecting or inventing a topic sentence so that a learner can explain in his or her own words what happened, or to give the structure of the argument.
- Constructing mental imagery of what is being read.
- Constructing questions, answering questions.
- Learning story grammar.
- Activating prior knowledge and that of most importance.
- Strategic uses of a set of tools.

These strategies are used in small-group discussions about what has been read so that learners can share ideas and support points with information from the text. Learners also use what they have read as a basis for writing.

2.12 Scaffolding in reading

According to Block and Duffy (2008, p. 27), scaffolding is the movement from teacher control of how to apply a strategy to learners’ control of the strategy as they apply it independently. Lyons (2001, p. 35) states that the reason for scaffolding in reading is to broaden the learner’s knowledge and skills in order to be able to use more strategies to make meaning of a text.

Nathason (2008) stated that teachers using group-guided reading should have a sound knowledge base of the accompanying observation procedures and theory-
supported group-guided reading. Teachers applying group-guided reading in their classes face a number of challenges such as becoming familiar with assessment and group-guided reading practices, obtaining a wide range of suitable-level books, becoming experts at matching learner to books and doing effective book introduction.

Brunner (2005) stresses that the social conditions in which language learning takes place are more important. He further states that the learner is an active participant who is essentially creative in his or her approach to language acquisition, but the role parents and others play are primordial. Brunner’s statement emphasizes that the learner must be able to read at school and even at home. Schools must be well equipped with libraries and parents must assist at home by providing their children with magazines to read and should supervise when the learner is reading.

2.13 Strategies for building meaning using cues and conventions of languages

According to Saskatchewan Learning (2003b), language is the foundation for reading. Attention needs to be paid to the elements of the language cueing system and the critical role they play in reading. He also states that the cueing systems are the elements of oral and written language including sounds, the collection of words, word-order patterns and the larger units and patterns that form the text. These systems communicate and cue the intended meaning. The conventions are the expected form that these cues should take, including the spelling of words, punctuation of sentences and format of the text such as paragraphs.
2.13.1 Cueing System:

Saskatchewan Learning (2003b) reports that these systems are the:

Textual cueing system: This helps the teachers to organise different text structures.

Graph phonic cueing system: This helps teachers to attend to letter-sound relationships (pronunciation and spelling).

Semantic cueing system: This helps teachers consider word meanings and functions (denotation and connotation).

Pragmatic cueing system: This builds on prior knowledge and experiences.

It takes into considerations the social and cultural aspects of language (situation, audience and purpose).

2.13.2 Phonological Awareness

Torgeson, Wagner, Rashotte, Alexander and Conway (1997, p.174) say phonemes are speech sounds, for example, the word “though” has six letters (graphemes) and two sounds (phonemes) /th/ /o/. Learners develop an awareness of how language works and an understanding that oral language is made up of many parts. Sentences are made up of words and words comprise syllables and sounds. They also state that emerging readers refine their awareness of the phonological components. Children play with words by creating new words and by exploring and creating language patterns. By singing songs, chanting rhymes, playing with words and listening to adults read word-play books, children develop their phonemic awareness. Teachers have to provide small-group instruction that is more intensive,
explicit and supportive than is usually provided in the classroom. They further state that beginning readers develop their concepts of letters and the alphabet. By noticing letters in environmental print, singing and recognising their own name, learners begin to explore and understand the relationship.

Rhyme recognition: the ability to identify whether or not a pair of words rhyme e.g. do pat and fat rhyme? Rhyme production: the ability to produce a rhyming word e.g. Tell me the word that rhymes with “kiss”, “cat”, “dog”? Alliteration identification: the ability to identify the common sound in different words e.g. Tell me the sound that is the same in baby, bark and rat? Alliteration discrimination: the ability to identify the word that has the odd sound e.g. Tell me which word does not belong in bake, bug and rat? Sentence segmentation: the ability to identify individual words in a sentence e.g. “I love you”. The learner should clap three times. Segmenting compound words: the ability to identify the fact that some big words are made up of two little words e.g. Clap once for each little word you hear in this big word “mailbox”, “snowman”. Segmenting words into syllables: the ability to identify the number of beats in a word e.g. say a word and have the child clap one beat for each syllable in “cat”, “garden”. Blending syllables: the ability to blend parts of words e.g. Say “cup-cake” with a slight pause between the two words. The teacher asks the learner to identify a whole word (cupcake).
Segmenting phonemes: the ability to identify the individual sounds in a word e.g. the teacher asks the learner to say the word “cat” and places a block on the table for each sound in the word “c – a – t”, “f – l – a – g”.

Blending phonemes: the ability to blend phonemes or individual sounds in a word. The teacher must begin with two to three phonemes and progress to four e.g. “g – o” or “s – oa – p” with a slight pause between each sound and the teacher then asks the learner to identify the word.

Identifying the initial sound in a word: the ability to identify the first sound heard in a word e.g. the teacher asks the learner to identify the first sound in the word “talk” /t/.

Identifying final sound in a word: the ability to identify the last sound heard in a word e.g. the teacher asks the learner to identify the last sound in the word “time” /m/.

Identifying the medial sound in a word: the ability to identify the middle sound heard in a word e.g. the teacher asks the child to identify the middle sound in the word “talk” /a/.

Deleting a phoneme: the ability to manipulate the individual sounds of a word e.g. Say the word “bat” and say it again without the /b/ (/at).

Adding a phoneme: the ability to add a sound to a group of sounds or to a one-syllable word e.g. the teacher adds the /b/ sound to /at/ and the learner says “bat”.

Substituting the initial phoneme in a word: the ability to change the first sound in a word e.g. the learner says the word “cat” and then says it again with /b/ for /k/. The teacher will hear “bat” instead of “cat”.
Substituting the final phoneme in a word: the ability to change the last sound in a word e.g. the teacher says the word “bit” and then says it again with /b/ for /k/. The teacher will hear “bid” instead of “bit”.

Substituting the medial vowel phoneme in a word: the ability to change the middle sound in a word e.g. the teacher says the word “bad” and then says it again with /u/ for /a/ so that the teacher hears “bud” instead of “bad”.

2.13.3 Vocabulary development

Ministry of Education (1996, p.141) states that oral and written vocabulary development is very important in the process of reading. Word knowledge increases a learner’s ability to comprehend what he or she reads. Many learners in the classroom today require specific instruction in order to develop their vocabulary. It also states that if learners engage in a wide variety of conversations, their oral vocabulary will increase. They will therefore enhance their written vocabulary. Vocabulary development is directly linked to receptive and expressive language development. Improvement in listening and speaking skills will ultimately increase vocabulary development.

According to Saskatchewan Education Learning (2002b, p.242), beginning readers develop a word awareness; learners need to develop a store of words that they recognise automatically and understand. By repeated reading experiences learners develop recognition of most words they see, hear and write. If learners are to become successful and fluent readers, it is important for learners to understand the meaning of ideas and the words that describe those ideas.
It is also stated that during the reading process learners need to understand the words that allow them to comprehend what they are reading and the strategies that they need in order to figure out the meaning. Vocabulary cannot be left to chance; it has to be developed, extended and taught. Furthermore, learners must be taught to use various words – using learning strategies as they approach new words in their reading and in their environment. Effective vocabulary instruction occurs when:

Learners are provided with multiple exposure to words in a variety of contexts, words are taught in the context of a selection, teachers help learners activate prior knowledge when learning new words and learners are encouraged to interact with words so they are able to process the deeply.

Moats (1998, p.204) states that learners need to be taught oral and written vocabulary in order to enhance the process of reading. He also states that if the word is not understood when it is encountered in print and oral vocabulary is the key to learning when making the transition from oral to written forms. Reading vocabulary is crucial to the comprehension text.

2.13.3.1 Importance of vocabulary in learning to read

According to Pretorius and Ribbens (2004), the child’s vocabulary determines how successful he or she will be in learning to read and write. Pre-school learners have mostly a listening and speaking vocabulary. Learners start to acquire a reading and writing vocabulary when learners begin formal schooling and when learners learn to see the connection between the sounds they hear and the symbols they see on the page and between printed words, spoken words and their meaning. They also state
that in order to develop the necessary word knowledge, the learners need to be taught how to decode sounds and words and to understand their meanings. A reading vocabulary is more formal and complex than a speaking vocabulary and ultimately will be larger. A responsibility of the teachers is to help learners transfer vocabulary skills from one form to another. Pretorius and Ribben (2004) further state that learners need to develop reading skills and vocabulary simultaneously in order for either to improve. Wide reading is critical for vocabulary growth and will only be effective once comprehension improves, which means having the necessary vocabulary. Person, Herbert and Konul (2007, p.75) suggest that because of the close relationship between reading ability, vocabulary knowledge and comprehension, words should not be taught in isolation but in context.

According to Cunningham and Stanovich (1998, p.84), there is clear evidence that learners who read a lot have a better vocabulary, general knowledge, spelling and verbal fluency than those who do not read. Biermiller (2001) claims that learners can learn two or three new words everyday if the words are explained in context.

2.13.4 Reading fluency

Beers (2003, p.146) contends that reading fluency refers to a learner’s ability to read words quickly, accurately and with appropriate phrasing and expression. Fluent reading skills are based on well-developed phonic skills. The ability to recognise words without consciously decoding is often referred to as “reading automatically”. Learners also need to be able to readily recognise sight words that occur frequently in print. Sight words refer to words that do not follow regular decoding rules (e.g.
said, how, goes, does). He also states that “frequency” depends upon well-developed word recognition skills. Some learners will still require further instruction in what is referred to as repeated oral reading practice. It gives learners the opportunity to practice reading a passage that is within their independent reading level. Repeated oral reading practice allows the learners to focus on phrasing and expression.

When a learner has limited reading frequency skills, valuable energy is used for decoding and is not available for constant meaning. Learners who are experiencing difficulty with fluency in reading quality, accuracy and with appropriate expression require instruction in phonics, high-frequency word recognition and repeated oral readings (high-frequency words are those that occur often). According to Sashe (2000, p. 43), reading fluency refers to the ability to and accurately read text with appropriate expression. Fluent readers do not have to sound out or decode each word. Fluent readers have good vocabulary and word identification skills; learners make connections between the text and their prior knowledge. Moreover, educators believe that if they encourage learners to read more learners will increase their fluency and achieve improved reading skills. Accuracy is acquired word by word but it does not automatically mean fluency, especially for a learner with a reading disability. Fluency can be taught through repeated readings, shared readings, echo reading guided readings, self-identifying reading errors and visualisation. Fluency can be taught through oral reading and an opportunity for feedback as the child reads (Shaywitz 2003).
According to Tankersley (1998, p. 43), successful intervention requires that teachers understand the reading processes and instruction, think diagnostically and use this information on an ongoing basis to inform instruction. He also states that struggling readers need multi-level, flexible, small-group instruction balanced with whole-clan instruction in which the teacher models and explicitly teaches reading strategies.

Mother and Goldsten (2001, p. 147) state that if learners do not automatically recognise, understand and utilize the basic components of phonics, their ability to read fluently is compromised. They also state that an important component of assessment and instruction for reading fluency is to review all the basic phonic skills. This may include naming letters rapidly, identifying sounds represented by letters or groups of letters, blending sounds into words, recognising syllables and blending them into words, identifying inflectional endings (e.g., -s, -ed, -ing) and their effect on roots (e.g., calls, called, calling), identifying prefixes (un-, re-, dis-), recognising syllables in multi-syllabic words, recognising capital letters and understanding their use, and recognising punctuation and understanding its meaning.

According to Johns and Lenski (2001, p.147), building learners’ sight vocabulary is critical in terms of attempting to increase reading fluency skills. The quicker learners are able to identify words that are commonly used in English, the more fluent their reading will become. They also state that there are thirteen words that account for approximately 25% of the words in school texts. If learners are able to instantly recognise high-frequency words they will be able to read a large percentage of all the words they encounter in books, magazines and newspapers.
2.13.5 Spelling

Moats (1998, p. 185) states that as learners learn to read, they are also learning to spell at the same time. When learners have difficulty learning to decode (read) they also have difficulty learning to encode (spell). He also reports that spelling is the most difficult literacy skill to develop in the learners with a reading disability. According to Lennox and Siegel (1998, p.46), phonological and orthographic skills interact in a reciprocal manner through the development of learning how to spell. Learners rely on both the sound system (phonology of a language) as well as spelling patterns (orthography) to spell words. The sound-to-letter (phoneme to grapheme) correspondence rules are an effective and powerful means to spelling “regular” words (Leon, 1998, p.32). Explicit training in phonological skills and spelling pattern structures needs to be carried out by the teacher.

Kosnik and Duplak (1997, p.69) state that it is important to teach learners how to spell. Spelling must be interconnected with all aspects of language learning and have a distinct place in the language arts program. A strong background in phonemic awareness and phonic skills is definitely necessary to assist learners in spelling. They also state that phonic skills learners use to decode words will also help to encode or spell words.

2.13.5.1 Spelling instruction

Moats (1998, p.193) states that the primary goal of spelling instruction should be to instil the logic and organisation of the spelling system and to help learners become proficient and fluent in spelling words. The aim of spelling instruction should be to
assist learners to become competent, independent spellers by freeing up intentional resources for higher-level expression in writing.

Trelman (1997, p.42) reports that what distinguishes spellers with reading disabilities is that they continue to have difficulties with some very specific phonemic processing skills; for example, learners have persistent difficulties spelling words that contain liquids (e.g. /l/ and /r/ and nasals /m/) particularly following vowels and in any non-initial position. Scott (2000) reports that when planning instructional intervention for poor spellers, it is important to remember that learners with poor spelling skills require more time and more intensive amounts of study to learn spelling. It is important then to either reduce the number of words to be learned per day or week compared to good spellers.

2.13.6 Making a word

According to Allington (2002, p.84), the teacher gives all the children the magnetic letters or letter cards, a, t, p, s, and b. He or she then puts and together to make ‘at” and instructs the children to do the same. The teacher then models placing b at the beginning of the word “at” to make “at”. S/he next asks the children to replace the b with a p to make pat and then to reverse the t and p to make “tap”. The lesson continues with the teacher modelling many words, eventually increasing the number of letters in the words. The children are also provided with opportunities to make their own words.
2.13.7 Blending

According to McCutchen (2002, p.69) and Snow (2002, p.5), when reading, children need to understand the meaning of the words. Before they can do this, however, they have to be able to work out what the words mean. The phonic skill for this is to look at the letters, say the sounds and hear the word, a process known as ‘blending;’ that is, saying the sounds in a word and then naming them together to make the word, e.g.; c-a-t is cat. It is a technique the child will need to learn and it improves with practice, though some take longer to do this than others. To begin with, one should sound out the word and see if the child can hear it. The sounds must be said quickly to hear the word and it is easier if the first sound is slightly louder, e.g. b and s.

The International Reading Association (IRA, 2002, p.24) has identified four main methods that can be used to teach learners how to read: the phonics method, the ‘look and say’ method, the language experience approach, and the context support method, however, there has been much controversy about the best methods to use when teaching reading (IRA, 2002, p.24), with some research identifying only two methods of teaching reading: the whole language approach ('look say') and phonetics (teaching-reading) (IRA, 2002, p.24). Despite the ‘great debate’ about the methods employed to teach reading, more researchers are propagating a balanced approach, which is integration of the different approaches (LeCompte, 2003, p.21; Levy, 2009, p.21; Reading Method, 2008, p.9).

The four commonly identified methods are explained briefly in order to differentiate between them. The phonics method is probably the best known and most widely used for teaching reading and writing in home language (IRA, 2002, p.41). In this
method, learners learn the names of letters and the sound they make. Once they learn the letter sounds they blend two or three letters together to make simple words. The ‘look and say’ method teaches learners to read words as whole units. They are repeatedly told the word name while being shown the printed word. The word is sometimes accompanied by a picture or is used in a meaningful context. The language-experience approach uses learners’ words to help them read, and the context-support method uses reading material that is in the learners’ learning context. Not all children learn to read in the same way, and the electric method is a combination of methods using activities and approaches selected from the different methods and theories (Teacher’s Guide, 2003, p.29). In particular, when teaching reading in isiXhosa, the dilemma faced by parents and teachers is: “What’s the best method?” meanwhile Levin (2003, p.32) experimented with a newer method called ‘syllabics’, which addresses both consonants sounds and vowels in a way that enables learners to master them both. Clearly, research on reading is an ongoing process and is driven by the experiences of teachers in the field.

2.13.8 Sentence Method

In South Africa, after the first quarter, to which only school readiness was devoted, teachers under the DET were to proceed with teaching by beginning reading formally, following a Sentence Method scheme of work with which they were provided. This scheme of work states from the onset that during the second quarter teachers use the scheme exactly as it stands; it has been worked out to fit the correct number of periods for each week (National Reading Panel, 2000).
It states that just as aspects of language are laid out week by week, so the number of minutes the teacher has to spend on each component is also specified, for example, the scheme emphasises: do not use more than half a period per item as the children’s concentration does not last longer. It further states that essentially, the Sentence Method is still a continuation of what is done during School Readiness, as the teacher is supposed to present children with words on flashcards and five sentences in strips to read aloud. Children match identical words on the flashcards then copy them into their books. Each week, the teacher has to add five more short sentences that have been taught, and is supposed to divide children into groups under four leaders, who then read from flashcards. The teacher begins to introduce new ones when children can recognise words, and they have to divide sentences into words and segment each word into syllables. There are periods allocated for using the class reader, but the scheme is not explicit on how one has to use it, or how children will read if they are experiencing difficulty in decoding, which they are not supposed to be taught.

The National Reading Panel (NRP, 2000, p.81) in the U.S. states that effective reading lessons should be given each day in the relevant languages and all reading in class should be done in groups, with each child reading individually to the group leader. Class readers should be read as available but children should complete at least two reader series during the course of the year. There are no clear explanations for why the teachers have to use this approach in beginning reading nor are there explanations for how the teacher can proceed if this approach does not work (Alloway & Gathercole, 2005, p.273). The researcher supports the opinion of Alloway & Gathercole (2005, p.273) in that fluent reading involves quick
recognition of individual words, oral reading, the understanding of whole phrases and sentences and reading with expression. Unlike the Breakthrough to isiXhosa method, which articulates the theoretical framework and research assumption on which it was based, the Sentence Method scheme does not. Teachers using the sentence method scheme have to take it on faith that children can learn to read by first introducing the sentence and then, later in the year, focusing on decoding those sentences.

Alloway & Gathercole, (2005) state that in contrast to the Breakthrough Approach, which introduced learners to various aspects of reading simultaneously, the Sentence Method scheme places emphasis on separating the times during which different aspects of reading should be covered, starting with word recognition in a sentence and then, later, decoding. The major difference between the two approaches is that in the sentence method the teacher provides sentences for children to read and copy while in the Breakthrough Approach the children come up with the sentence. Within the same sentence that the children produce, the teacher makes explicit the connection between oral and written words in print. Word recognition decoding and other aspects of print are also reinforced and simultaneously brought to the children’s attention within a particular context.

Alloway & Garthercole (2005) further argue that in the Breakthrough Approach children reflect ownership as they can generate their own words and sentences based on the words and sounds they have learned. With the support of materials from a Breakthrough kit, children can form new words and express their own meanings in written stories, which they in turn read. On the other hand, children using the Sentence Method are limited since explicit instructions in different aspects
of reading, such as decoding, were withheld until later in the year. Unlike children in the Breakthrough Approach, who can develop independence from relying on the teacher for learning to read, children in the Sentence Method have limited alternatives. The latter depends on sentences to be given by the teacher, and learners have to wait until the third quarter to learn how words are formed to make meaning. In the Sentence Method, children are not encouraged to construct their own meanings or texts; this tends to deprive them of the ownership of the learning process.

2.14. Effective reading instruction

According to the Ministry of Education (2001 p.11), effective classroom instruction in the early grades is the key to creating strong, competent readers and to preventing reading difficulties. It is the teacher’s role to provide effective reading instructions and it is also the teachers who have the greatest opportunities and most direct responsibility for providing the instructions that inspire and enable the children to become lifelong readers. It also states that the foundations for good reading are the same for all children, regardless of their gender, background or special learning needs. All children use the same processes in learning to read. Some will need more help than others and may need more instruction in one reading skill than another, but all children must ultimately master the same basic skills for fluency and comprehension.

Reading does not happen in isolation. The three strands of the language curriculum are oral communication, reading and writing and these are interwoven. Oral language is the basis for literacy development particularly in the early primary years.
Children need oral language and writing skills in order to be proficient in reading. Although instructional strategies for oral language and writing are not discussed, they are essential for teaching children to read. They need to be integrated into all subject areas and encouraged at every opportunity (Ministry of Education, 2001).

2.15 Application of strategies in the Foundation Phase

2.15.1 Questioning: the strategy that propels readers forward

According to Stephanee, Harvey and Goudvis (2007, p.54), very young children brim with questions. Furthermore, questions are at the heart of teaching and learning and when readers have questions they are less likely to abandon the text; proficient readers ask questions before, during and after reading. They question the content, the author, the events, the issues and the ideas in the text. Teachers need to celebrate learners’ questions and help facilitate their answers.

2.15.2 Making inferences: reading between the lines

Stephane et.al (2007, p.55) state that human beings infer in many realms. Readers make inferences about expressions, body language and tone as well as text. Inferring involves drawing a conclusion or making an interpretation that is not explicitly stated in the text. Furthermore, they state that readers infer when they take what they already know, together with their background knowledge and they merge it with dives in the text to draw a conclusion, surface, a theme, product, and an outcome and arrive at a long idea. If readers don’t infer they will not grasp the deeper essence of the text they read. The more information readers acquire the more likely they will make a reasonable inference.
2.15.3 Visualising: becoming word struck

Visualising is all about inferring meaning. When readers visualise they are actually constructing meaning by creating mental images. Furthermore, young children seem particularly able to visualise to support understanding as they listen to and read stories by “living through or living in” the stories they read. Teaching children to construct their own mental images when reading non-fiction helps them to stop, think about and understand the information Stephane et al (2007, p.57).

2.15.4 Determining importance: distilling the essence of text

What we determine to be important in text depends on our purpose for reading it. When we read fiction, we focus on the character’s actions, motives and problems that contribute to the overall themes. Stephane et al (2007), state that if the reader has had experiences similar to those of the main character, the reader is likely to enjoy a richer and more fulfilling reading experience. Moreover, they state that one needs to focus on important information and merge it with what we already know to expand our understanding of the topic.

2.15.5 Summarising and synthesizing information: the evolution of thought

As readers move through text, thinking is involved. They add new information to what they already know and construct meaning as they go (Stephanne et al 2007, p.59). Summarising is about retelling the information and paraphrasing it. When readers summarise, they need to sift and sort through large amounts of information with their thinking and shape it into their own thoughts. When readers synthesize
the information, they see the bigger picture as they read. As they move from summarising to synthesizing, the information is added to their store of knowledge.

2.15.6 Activating background knowledge and making connections: A bridge from the new to the known

The reader is questioning, inferring, or synthesizing; a reader’s background knowledge is the foundation of his or her thinking. As already stated in 2.15.4, when learners have had an experience similar to that of a character in a story, they are more likely to understand the character’s motives, thoughts and feelings. Furthermore when readers have an abundance of background knowledge about a specific content area, they have a better understanding of the new information they read.

2.16 Reading strategies used by teachers in the Foundation Phase

According to the Department of Basic Education (2008: p15), teachers apply the following reading strategies:

2.16.1 Independent reading: Independent reading is the purposeful, planned activity when learners choose their own books according to their interest and ability. Learners should be guided to choose texts that they can read with a high degree of success. Independent reading should be followed by discussion and dialogue with the teacher and peers. It also states that the teacher should always be listening and gathering information about learner’s reading behaviour during independent reading sessions. The teacher should encourage learners to use independent reading time to practise reading short predictable stories as well as books that had been read in the
shared and guided reading sessions. To ensure that the learners have understood what they have read, teachers should discuss the stories or books with the learners (Teaching Reading in the Early Grades. Teachers’ handbook).

2.16. 2 Reading aloud

Reading aloud is the strategy whereby the teacher reads aloud to the whole class or to a small group, using material that is at the listening comprehension level of the learners. According to the National Reading Strategy (2008, p12), reading aloud to learners helps them to develop a love of good literature, motivation to read on their own and familiarity with a variety of genres, including non-fiction. The Department further states that reading aloud provides learners with new vocabulary, exposes learners to a variety of literature and contributes to their oral and written language development. Reading aloud should occur every day in the early stage of reading instruction to stimulate the learner’s interest in books and reading (Teaching Reading in the Early Grades, Teachers Handbook 2008, and p.26).

Simpson (1996) suggests that today’s reading instruction must adapt some new methods in the classroom to teach learners some strategies that could be used across the whole curriculum while focusing on background knowledge and word relationships. Ollif (1991) argues that sometimes teachers assume that learners share their own conceptual knowledge of the terms which are part of the reading instruction register. Research, according to Ollif (1991, pp.181-183), clearly suggests that this assumption is erroneous; learners do not use the term “word” as a segment of speech in the same way as adults do. There are some indications that as learners grow older, their concept of word in speech improves. Age, however, may
not be the determining factor. Meaningful experience with language, not age, may be the factor crucial to resolving the child’s state of cognitive confusion. Beginning readers and those unsuccessful at the task of beginning reading fail to differentiate between what they hear and the mutually-exclusive categories referred to by the teacher’s use of the terms “word” and “sound.”

Social interaction apparently affects the child’s acquisition of information, attitudes and literacy skills from the story. Researchers like Michener (1988), Morrow (1990) Yaden (1989) and Taylor (1995) have found that reading aloud in class by the teacher is the most important strategy that aids the learners’ literacy development. The above researchers are of the opinion that the above activity can stimulate interest; it enthuses learners and it is reported to be the most important strategy which helps learners to increase their vocabulary and also improve reading comprehension.

Any language-experience-approach activities which represent the child’s own oral language in print are appropriate in helping the learner develop an understanding of the concept of a word. Teachers might encourage the use of inter-word spaces. Vocabulary from content areas should be part of the print displayed in the classroom and should be integrated into writing activities (Morris quoted by Ollif 1991, p.181).

2.16.3 Group-guided reading

Group-guided reading is a teacher-directed activity. The teacher supports a small group of learners as they talk, read and think their way through a text. Learners can be grouped for group reading according to ability and specific needs. This involves using carefully-selected books at the learners’ level. The Department of Basic
Education (2008, p.26) states that guided reading provides opportunities to integrate a learner’s growing knowledge of the conventions of print, letter sounds relationships and other foundational skills in context.

Through modelling and instruction, guided reading enables teachers to extend the learner’s vocabulary development and knowledge and use of comprehension strategies. Learners can be grouped for guided reading by reading ability; for example, learners who have barriers to reading. The groups are fluid and can be changed according to the teacher’s observations and assessments. The main goal is to improve comprehension using several activities. The group-guided reading strategy can be adapted to a computer and a word processor through starting the reading experiences by using the internet to anticipate and make predictions about what will be read (http//www.teachers.net). Group-guided reading provides the bridge to independent reading. It cannot be executed effectively without a sound theoretical knowledge base for instruction.

**2.16.4 Shared reading**

Shared reading is usually done with the whole class. Learners share the reading task with the teacher and gradually take over the task of reading. Shared reading can be done in a relaxing environment. While shared reading takes place, the teacher has to accept all the attempts from learners and use their responses to promote further learning. Learners should see that errors help them to build on what they know. The teacher must praise learners for trying. A supportive learning environment helps the weaker learners of the class to operate as readers. Shared reading exposes all learners to a range of reading strategies that they can use independently in future.
Those lessons need to be carefully planned. Shared reading can be used with any age or ability group and grade level. It also extends learner’s sight and listening vocabulary (Teaching Reading in the Early Grades Teachers Handbook).

2.16.5 Phonics

Phonics instruction teaches children that there is a relationship between the letters of written language (graphemes) and the individual sounds of spoken language (phonemes). Contrary to the views of some critics such as Graves, Juel and Graves (2007, p.21), Rose (2006, p.27) says the goal of phonics instruction is to make children understand that there is a systematic and predictable relationship between written letters and spoken sounds. Knowing these relationships will help children recognise familiar words accurately and automatically, and to decode new ones. A child must learn phonic information to the point of it becoming automatic, thus contributing to his or her ability to read words in isolation and in connected text, however, the phonics instruction is a means to an end, not an end in itself (Rose, 2006, p.31).

Phonics instruction: This is a way of teaching reading that stresses the acquisition of letter-sound correspondences and their use in reading and spelling. The primary focus of phonics instruction is to help beginning readers understand how letters are linked to sounds (phonemes) to form letter-sound correspondences and spelling patterns and to help them learn how to apply this knowledge in their reading. Phonics instruction may be provided systematically or incidentally. The hallmark of a systematic phonics approach or programme is that a sequential set of phonics elements is delineated and these elements are taught along a dimension of
explicitness depending on the type of phonics method employed (Gordon & Brown, 2004, p.6).

Saskatchewan Learning (2002b) explains that phonics refers to the correspondence between letters (graphemes) and sounds (phonemes), for example the (f) can be represented by the grapheme (s) ‘f’ or ‘ph’. Phonics is not the same as phonemic awareness. It is not the predominant component within a reading programme, rather it is one of the essential features. It is stated that phonics should begin with a foundational understanding of phonemic awareness and letters of the alphabet. Learners develop a sound letter relationship that helps them decode and spell words and effective phonics instruction focuses learners’ attention on noticing the letter–sound patterns.

Stahl (2004, p.35), using language borrowed from Durkin, defines phonics as “any approach in which the teacher does or says something to help children learn how to decode words”. There are numerous approaches to teaching phonics, but these can be classified into two broad groups: analytic and synthetic (Stahl, 2004, p.57). The synthetic approaches begin with learning letter sound relationships and blending them to create words c/a/t then cat (Bald, 2007, p.18). The synthetic phonics approach has the learner sound out and blend letters to form words; some examples for this being: s-i-k-o-l-o then sikolo, from parts to the whole.

2.17 Reading challenges faced by teachers in the Foundation Phase

Many Foundation Phase teachers are faced with many challenges when teaching reading strategies.
2.17.1 Teacher competence

The Department of Education states that many teachers in South Africa have an under-developed understanding of teaching reading and writing. Teachers know one method of teaching reading which may not suit the learning style of all learners. Furthermore, teachers do not necessarily know how to stimulate reading inside and outside the classroom (National Reading Strategy, 2008, p.8).

2.17.2 Insufficient Time Allocation

According to the researchers’ information concerns were raised regarding the allocated time for teaching reading comprehension to the learners. One hour was suggested specifically for reading comprehension daily. Reading has many facets, more time is needed for general reading and one hour is needed specifically for reading comprehension because reading comprehension also has many aspects. Learners must read and understand so that they can answer the questions, it takes time. Teachers need more time for teaching reading because it is a difficult area. The National Reading Strategy (NRS) stipulates 30 minutes for teacher-guided reading and independent reading, 15 minutes for shared reading and writing by the whole class and 15 minutes at word and sentence level (DBE 2008). To support the above statement, Wessels (2010, p.93) says the following: “Classroom time, however, is limited and teachers have to find ways and means to encourage learners to become readers. These include reading exciting passages to learners, talking about a story briefly and displaying illustrations, having book displays to awaken curiosity, and making room for a library corner”. Wessels (2010) says that time allocation for reading is important for enhancing reading comprehension. It is clear
though that even if teachers have ample time, teaching reading comprehension cannot take place without appropriate books. Learners should, therefore, be exposed to the written word but with enough time for teaching and learning.

Unfortunately, the teachers in this researchers’ multiple case study did not have readers or a library corner to motivate learners to read.

2.17.3 Multilingualism

The new South African Constitution (Act No. 58 of 1995) was drawn up in such a way that it prioritises, among other principles, the principle of human rights and equality of human status. It recognizes all 11 languages of the country as official and gives them the same status at national level. In this study teachers concurred with the following remark:

“We are required to teach two languages and to teach reading and writing. Some learners come from a poor background, and when we introduce two languages it becomes more difficult and also to the teachers According to policy, schools use their own discretion in choosing two or more learning languages, including the one spoken in the area.” These languages are introduced as early as Grade 1.

Unfortunately, this approach, does not promote effective language learning, including reading. The argument presented here is that the learner is still grappling with his/her own language at the same time as being burdened with learning other languages. This language overload inevitably overwhelms the learner. Teachers view this as one of the factors impacting negatively on reading competency.
2.17.4 Lack of parental involvement in schools

Parental involvement is a key element in a school’s plan in order to make every child a successful reader. While the school has the primary responsibility for formal reading instruction, learners are more likely to succeed when their parents are actively involved in their education. Parents need to know that learners learn to read in a series of developmental stages that lead, over time, to independent reading (Ministry of Education, 2001.p.65). The latter also states that teachers can help parents by describing the most appropriate home activities at each stage in a child’s reading development.

Parents in the classroom, that is parents and other family members who are able to volunteer in the classroom can provide valuable support for the classroom reading programme; for example, they can read aloud to learners, help them with homework and practise sight words and letter recognition. For learners whose home language is not the language of instruction, parent volunteers who speak the same language can help to ease the transition into school (Early Reading Strategy 2003 p.66). The latter also states that schools have a responsibility to provide appropriate training and support to enable parent volunteers to make a meaningful contribution, however, parent cannot be expected to be reading experts. Encouraging family involvement – according to Early Reading Strategy (2003 p.66)-it is important for teachers and administration to identify parents’ level of participation and work towards removing barriers that may be preventing further participation. It also states that when teachers are supportive, responsive and welcoming, teachers encourage parents to be positive partners in their child’s education. Teachers can help to build positive partnerships with families by showing genuine interest in the
learners, using creative problem-solving strategies, promoting the philosophy of teamwork, developing and promoting multicultural understanding, being sensitive to the needs of parents and families and responding promptly and constructively to parent concern.

According to Baker (2003, p.47), parents’ education is a determining factor in children’s reading abilities. Baker contends that the education level of parents has a strong effect on a learners’ performance. Baker (2003, p.49) further states that parents with higher schooling place a greater value on education. Englund, Lucker, Whaley, Gloria and Egeland (2004) point out that the parents with a low level of education do not assist their children in reading because they have difficulties in fostering children’s reading abilities due to the level of their own education. As a result they provide fewer books for their children to read. Furthermore, Engeland, et al (2004) state that parents who provide very few books and have difficulties fostering children’s reading abilities can affect their children’s performance and make them feel negative towards education. Parents with higher education levels provide more reading books for their children and usually guide them on how to use these books.

In summary, it was found that parents’ education level significantly influenced learners’ academic abilities (Considine and Zappala 2002, p.74). Furthermore, they state that parents with higher educational attainment are more likely to promote the value of a higher level of achievement or performance, and to provide both the psychological and educational support learners need to excel at school.

Bernstein (1924-2000) says children’s books are written in what is considered “academic language” and, therefore, children who are read to by parents are better
equipped to deal with school language than children who are exposed to colloquial chatter at home.

Early Years Foundation Stage (EYFS) requires all those working with young children to engage in learning partnerships with parents. This includes commitment of parents because parents are children`s first and most enduring educators. When parents and practitioners work together in early years settings, the results have a positive impact on children`s learning and development (Desforges, 2003). He further states that it is known that what parents do at home with young children has the greatest impact on a child`s social, emotional and intellectual development. The Effective Provision of Pre-School Education (EPPE) report concludes by saying that what parents do is more important than who parents are. (Desforges, 2003) states that social class, income, living conditions and parents` own education levels are clearly related to child outcomes, but the quality of the home learning environment is even more important. Parents may live in disadvantaged circumstances and may not have achieved well educationally, but if they regularly engage in activities which help to stretch a child`s mind as part of everyday life at home, they can enhance their child`s progress and development. He further states that children with strong home learning environments are already ahead in both social and intellectual development at the age of three. This advantage continues through to age seven, and the latest report concludes that the effect is maintained through to age 10 (Sylvia, 2004; Sammons et al, 2007). The impact is evident across all social classes and ethnic groups, and different levels of parental involvement have a greater impact on achievement in the primary age range than the variation in school quality. Children receive not just skills, knowledge and intellectual stimulation
at home, they also absorb a positive attitude towards learning and a strong self-image as a successful learner (Desforges, 2003).

At home parents, carers and older siblings can provide more one-to-one attention; they can really listen to what a child is saying and focus on a reply. They can tap into a child’s immediate concerns, knowledge and experience, follow up individual interests and enthusiasms, and help a child make connections between one idea and another (Sylvia, 2004).

Jacobs (1990) state that homes are classified as providing a strong literacy environment if parents provide literacy experiences for their children by reading to them, buying them books, teaching them to read and expressing high educational expectations for them. Furthermore, they state that strong literacy environments are homes where the parents have attained high levels of education and read a variety of difficult reading materials. In addition, they states that parental provision of a strong literacy environment in the home is positively associated with the learner’s positive literacy and language development; it is strongly associated with progress in both language (words meanings) and also associated with good reading.

Jeanes et al (1990, p.84) state that mothers have a positive influence on the literacy and language development of their children and more so than the fathers. Moreover, mothers, more than the fathers, help with homework, select reading materials, answer questions, read bedtime stories, enforce television rules and support learning in other ways.

Rosehouse (1997) claims that children from illiterate environments have less chance of success in reading acquisition and extraction of meaning from texts than children who grow up in literate environments. Furthermore, Rosehouse (1997) reiterates the
view that educated parents interact with their children through storybook reading. This habit of story reading to their children leads to the transfer of this activity from home to the formal school setting at the earliest possible age. This directs and guides their children in the use of linguistic cues.

Mwamwenda (1989) points out that parents from higher income home backgrounds support learning by providing their children with books, newspapers, toys, magazines, radios and television. They assist their children with their homework and supplement what the children have learned in schools. These activities not only support and motivate the children in their learning and reading, the children also gain confidence. Mwamwenda (1989) further states that, on the contrary, parents from low-income background do not usually support and give guidance to their children. This may also be due to their lack of knowledge of the second language used.

Chomsky (1972) found similar associations for a middle class population. He found that when the middle class mothers expressed stronger preferences for reading and had greater recall of their childhood favourites, their children also had more highly-developed language and reading achievements. Significantly related to both language and reading were the number of activities parents engaged in outside of work such as social clubs, church groups and union groups.

2.17.5 Lack of Motivation

Brunner (1986) stated that the motivation to read is essential for actively engaging learners in the reading process. It is the fuel that lights the fire and keeps it burning.
Bruner (1986) values the role of motivation as important in learning and this can be applied to the teaching of reading comprehension. Strategic teachers are teachers who motivate learners to have an interest in reading any text with the aim to understand the meaning thereof. The teachers have to motivate learners before reading and make them want to read for information and for pleasure. Learners are motivated to engage in reading comprehension when they are given opportunities that improve their comprehension ability (Texas Education Agency 2002; DoE 2002).

‘Motivation is the internal force that drives an individual [learner] to move towards the goal after perceiving a plan, for example, the need for accomplishment (Martin and Pear, 2003, p. 57)’ and this can influence the interest, purpose, emotion or persistence with which a reader engages with text (Butcher and Kintsch 2003; Schallert and Marting 2003). The researcher states that teacher understood that reading comprehension had an emotional value and needed to be developed. Motivation is critical because it can influence and create the interest, purpose, emotion, or persistence with which a reader engages with text and so improve reading ability and comprehension of texts (Guthrie and Winfield, 2000). This implies that motivation encourages and arouses an organism to act towards a desired goal. It is important that teachers must motivate learners in such a way that they develop a love for reading. This behaviour can also encourage learners to develop positive attitudes towards reading comprehension by motivating them at all times (Guthrie and Winfield, 2000).
2.17.6 Inability to Create Opportunities to Teach Vocabulary

Teachers must provide many opportunities for learners to learn words, related concepts and their meanings. They need strong instructional opportunities to build their personal warehouse of words in order to develop deep levels of word knowledge and acquire a toolbox of learning strategies that aids their independent acquisition (Butler et al. 2010), however, there continues to be little research that conclusively identifies the best methods or combinations of methods of vocabulary instruction (NRP 2000). Bromley (2007, p. 529) suggests that teachers must use a combination of direct (explicit) and indirect (implicit) techniques in order to facilitate vocabulary. Direct techniques mean teaching specific words, such as pre-teaching vocabulary prior to reading a selection. The researcher believes that teachers must assist learners to develop an appreciation for words and having them read a lot (Dole, 2000). Teachers should incorporate vocabulary as an essential component of communication and comprehension competence. Teachers should pay attention to learners’ individual needs and be able to employ developmentally-appropriate methods to help their learners to do well. Teachers should attach importance to current research-based strategies to teach language. There should also be emphasis on meaningful communication when teaching language to the learners.

Without adequate vocabulary skills, the learners’ ability to communicate are severely limited (Westwood, 2004). This implies that effective use of vocabulary learning strategies enhances vocabulary knowledge in learners. In this study, the researcher agrees with (Bromley, 2007, p. 528) that vocabulary is a principle contributor to
comprehension, fluency and achievement in reading and that both teachers and learners need support.

2.17.7 Lack of Learners’ self-regulatory skills

The teacher must teach learners to acquire self-regulatory competence in order to become independent readers and learn to read and use the appropriate strategies needed for the text. These processes ought to be planned and adapted to support the pursuit of personal goals in changing learning environments where necessary. Zimmerman (1998) proposes the idea of learners themselves being the source of plans, intentions, strategies and the emotions that are necessary to create meaning from the written text. According to Zimmerman (1998), teaching multiple strategies is important, since the self-regulatory strategy will not work for all learners and using certain strategies will not work on all tasks. Zimmerman, 1998) suggests multiple self-regulatory strategies rather than single strategies and states that learners can be taught to become more self-regulated. This view is linked to the constructivist theory. By learning to self-regulate as a skill from peers, parents or teachers, each new generation of learners can build on the achievement of prior generations and avoid the mistakes of the past (Zimmerman, 1998).

2.17.8 Lack of resources affects the performance of learners

According to the researchers’ view lack of available reading material is regarded as a major challenge by the teachers. There are few books for learners to read at the schools in the Mthatha district and in some schools there is no one to read to the learners. Teachers can, therefore, not assist nor motivate learners to read. If
children can be provided with reading material even before they go to school that will mean that they grow up having a positive attitude towards books and other related material. By the time they go to school, they will be used to books. They will also be able to cut and paste pictures to make their own stories. This implies that it is important for learners during their early years to be exposed to books so that they could develop a love for books and eventually will become readers.

There is a problem when it comes to assisting learners to read a variety of texts while they are out of classrooms. This implies that a culture of reading should be instilled before children start school, however in order to accommodate all the learners, teachers must encourage learners to have a love of books. A love of reading can be achieved if teachers create a print-rich environment in the classroom by providing reading and writing materials for the learners and reading to the learners every day.

The majority of schools in Mthatha district have no access to libraries. This also impacts negatively on the quality of teaching and learning (DoE, 2008, p.9). Libraries are normally buildings specially designed to create a more conducive environment for learners to use when studying and they also provide different books in order to assist the learners with any given task.

The importance of reading materials and resources is clearly stated in the National Reading Strategy as one of the six key pillars for successful reading in South African Schools (Department of Education, 2008). The other five pillars are monitoring learner performance, teaching practice and methodology, teacher training, development and support, management of the teaching of reading, research, partnership and advocacy.
2.17.1 Newspapers and magazines

According to Masan (1981, p.69), scholar class newspapers created by pupils appeal to children who are familiar with much of the information reported. He further states that there are also commercially-published newspapers and magazines for children which appeal to their interest and are written on their level; Jack and Jill and Humpty Dumpty are appropriate magazines for young American children.

2.17.2 Trade books

Masan (1981, p.71) also states that most non texts are trade books, produced for “the trade” and are intended for sale in bookstores. Teachers have three major responsibilities with respect to trade books in reading instruction. The first is to be familiar with a large variety of books at the level at which the pupils read. The pupils in the first grade usually range from non-readers to readers who are proficient in second or third level material, so that the first grade teacher must be familiar with wordless future story books, future books for reading to children and easy books for beginners to read themselves. The second responsibility is to be sure teachers can select books that are at children’s independent levels and that are interesting to them. The third responsibility is to make sure that the books are read. One way to do this is to develop a checkout system so that learners can take home books to read and assume responsibility for them.

2.17.3 Word card

Masan (1981, p.43) states that the cards should be notched in the upper-right corners (with printed side up). The teacher must make sure that all the cards are
faced the right way and are right side up. The teachers distribute word cards to the learners and ask them to hold up a card which matches the word she/he points to and calls out. This helps the learners learn that printed words are units that correspond to oral words. Word cards can be matched to words on the chalkboard and to labels on classroom objects. They can be arranged to write messages and sentences.

2.17.4 Pictures

Van Renen (2008, p.53) states that children are usually stimulated by pictures and pictures arouse their natural interest so it is recommended that reading materials should be rich in a variety of pictures. Furthermore, the more complex the pictures, the more interested the learners become in recognising the words associated with the pictures. The conclusion is that pictures promote active reading through recognition.

2.17.5. Charts

Singh (2009) advises that charts should be carefully chosen to help learners to read and that the content should be appropriately designed and made by the teacher so that they are relevant and interesting. They should be related to the daily activities of the learners and these charts should be displayed in the classroom to create a sense of ownership. Ready-made charts can also be purchased and displayed on the walls in the classroom and these should be carefully selected to suit the age of the learners in terms of content and vocabulary. According to the (Department of Education, 2008), The National Reading Strategy advocates that teachers need
adequate charts for reading. Ready-made charts can be displayed on the walls in the classroom; these include spelling charts, birthday charts, picture chart and weather charts.

2.17.6 Reading corner table

Buchorn-Stoll, (2002, p.83) recommends that creating different reading environments in the classroom promotes reading. Teachers must encourage learners to become members of the local library or mobile libraries. Many local libraries offer teachers block loans for their reading tables in the classroom and there must be used to instil a love of reading in learners. In this way, learners will learn to care for and love books when learners personally handle them on a daily basis. The latter system, however, applies in America.

The Department of Basic Education, (2008) states that all Foundation Phase classrooms will have a “reading/library corner”, with exciting story books in all the languages spoken in the class. These reading corners should have story books for learners and reference material for teachers and learners in order to help them to effectively implement the NCS.

2.17.7 Competitions to encourage reading

Singh (2009) recommends that competitions should be arranged for learners to compete in reading. Reading competitions can be used as a motivational technique to urge learners to read on their own. The competition should include spelling of words that seem to be new so as to increase the vocabulary acquisition of the
learners. Generally, creativity by the class teacher should excite the learners and increase their motivational levels so that they create that habit and read intrinsically.

2.17.8 Games

Plant, Addysg and Sggiliau (2004, p.43) argue that Foundation Phase learners learn through play. In view of this, reading teachers should use this approach to teach reading by selecting appropriate games and using them in the classroom to promote reading. Currently there are several educational games that can be used to promote reading and these are available in shops. Generally, innovative and creative teachers will involve learners in playing educational games to improve their reading skills, which in turn will enable them to advance in the compilation of their vocabulary stock.

2.17.9 Libraries

Libraries are buildings specially designed to create a more conducive environment for learners to use when studying and they also provide different books in order to assist the learners with any given tasks. Bot (2005, p. 9) contends that in most rural schools, learners do not have access to libraries unlike those in more advantaged schools. This negatively affects their academic performance as they do not have access to sufficient educational books that are usually provided by libraries and neither and do they have access to a quieter and peaceful environment which can provide them with a conducive atmosphere during their studies. Learners from more advantaged schools often spend their time in libraries after school, during weekends.
and holidays while those from less-advantaged schools go straight home after school where it is usually very noisy (Obanya, 2002, p.63).

**2.17.10 Books**

According to the DoE in the National Revised Statement, NRS (2008, p. 4), South Africa faces many challenges in promoting literacy. Many homes have no books. Books in African languages are scarce so children do not have the opportunity to read in their home languages. It further states that some classrooms have no books at all, and even those classes which do have sets of readers, they often have them at the wrong level. Poor matriculation results are in part due to the levels of students’ reading skills. The Department of Education states that tertiary level students and even those enrolled for the languages and arts are not proficient in reading in terms of international standards.

According to Obanya (2002, p.67), most children (especially those from rural areas or economically-disadvantaged backgrounds) first meet books and reading materials in schools and have limited access to them in their homes and in the community. The Teacher, a newspaper dated May-June (2010, p. 10) talks about the benefits of reading for fun. Having books in a classroom is one of the easiest and most effective ways of increasing reading, as well as linguistic and cognitive development. This paper further states that learners who have access to books and who read regularly learn to read more easily, keep improving their reading skills, perform better in language tests, are better writers and acquire a wider vocabulary. They also develop a broader general knowledge.
Baker (2003, p.32) contends that parents with a high education level provide more children’s books and they do not have difficulties in guiding children’s reading; their children display positive behaviours and attitudes to reading. He further states that parents with a low level of education provide fewer books for their children. Not fostering children’s reading abilities can affect children’s school skills and make them feel negative about themselves as individuals.

2.18 Lack of trained teachers to teach reading strategies

Some teachers have not been trained to use strategies and reading skills during their basic teacher training. Some may not have been exposed to such basic training at initial training level. Both groups of teachers, due to the changing demands of education and its practises, may find themselves irrelevant and unable to deal with the modern demands of reading. In order to be able to teach strategies effectively they therefore need some training to equip them with the necessary skills required (Hugo, 2010, p.15). Regarding the Foundations for Learning Campaign (FFLC), Teachers complained that the FFLC came as an overload. Teachers said that they were unable to plan instructions due to the many documents and introduction of new terms. Every new change came with new terminology, and this was confusing to teachers. Inappropriate use of methodology in the teaching of readings suggests that teachers may not have been introduced to the major communicative and interactive approaches to reading in the pre service teacher programmes (Hugo, 2010, p.16).

The National Curriculum Statement (2005), requires these approaches yet even in the pre-service training for NCS, teachers had little orientation on the teaching and
developing of reading. Experiences through interacting with practicing teachers show that when learners read aloud individually, they are not given pause time to use some other strategies. Learners often read parrot fashion; the meaning of what they read is often not established by a reader. They are overcorrected for trivial and insignificant pronunciation errors. Teacher incompetence in implementing the new curriculum is invariably an impediment to effective and efficient reading (NCS, 2005).

The importance of basic training of Foundation Phase teachers should not be overemphasized. The Foundation Phase is an important phase of learning in the schooling system. This is where the foundation of reading and knowledge acquisition starts. According to Piaget’s stages of development, babies have the ability to build mental pictures of objects around them from the knowledge that they have developed and on what can be done with those objects (Mwamwenda, 1989). For a proper foundation to be laid in reading for any child at this phase, it is important for teachers responsible for such learners to be well equipped with proper teaching and learning methods for reading.

According to (Singh, 2009) Foundation Phase teachers should be specifically trained in reading skills required to teach learners how to read. (Singh, 2009) has observed that careful planning of pre-reading activities eases young learners into reading. By creating a stimulating classroom environment, children become interested in reading in their mother tongue.
The results of (Hugo’s, 2010, p.22) studies reveal that there are certain requirements and skills that teachers of reading have to attend to: teachers need to be flexible and well trained in the use of various reading methods because the circumstances and the learners they teach require this. Teachers should have an input in the in-service training provided so that it suits their needs in certain areas and schools. Hugo recommends that teachers should be trained to reflect on their own teaching and especially on their teaching of reading and should be assisted in developing improved and appropriate reading materials for their learners.

Some teachers may have been trained to teach reading and reading skills during their basic teacher training. Some may have been exposed to such basic training at initial teacher-training level. Both groups of teachers, due to the changing demands of education and its practices, may, however, find themselves irrelevant and unable to deal with the modern demands of reading. In order to be able to teach reading effectively, they therefore need some form of training that can equip them with the necessary skills required, as already stated.

Donald and Condy (2005) are of the view that teachers should be trained by a team of departmental educators in workshops held twice a year in their respective districts for teaching reading. The suggestion is that the training process should involve an overview of the theory of reading in the concentrated language encounter programme, followed by demonstrations of the specific teaching processes such as mediation, scaffolding and peer-group learning that are central to all stages of the programme. The task, according to (Donald and Condy ,2005), of each district training team, should not only be focusing on training teachers in the application of the relevant stages, but also on follow-up support to teachers in their schools.
Essential classroom materials, starter books and the teachers’ manuals need to be provided for each class teacher as well as copies of the training videos for each participating school.

2.19 Second Language affects the performance of learners

By basic definition, language means “the way one speaks, and or style”. When a learner enters school it is the teacher’s role and responsibility to provide, plan and teach an effective reading programme that will enable the learner to become a skilful reader. Every teacher should strive to teach learners to apply reading strategies when they read. Perhaps the crucial point is not that children must know all the letters before they learn to read words, but rather that they should pay attention to the letters (Bald, 2007, p.9). At the Foundation Phase level, school pupils are inducted into the language of teaching and learning, which is often different from their home language. In order to be successful in later years in the schooling system, pupils need to be taught the language of teaching and learning from the Foundation Phase, within a context of Home Language instruction. Thus Foundation Phase teachers, for the majority of schools, need to understand multiple languages. In the majority of cases, this would entail knowledge of English and Home language.

The South African Department of Basic Education NCS (DBE 2002) paints a gloomy picture of the state of reading competency among South African learners from foundation phase level. The report suggests that the reading competence level is in crisis. The DBE findings show that in the nine South African provinces only 38% of
grade three learners could read in 2002. The four schools that the researcher selected for this study are situated in the rural setting in the Mthatha district.

In South Africa, schools have been categorised into quintile 1, 2, 3 and 4. In the past few years, a great number of foundation phase learners have low performance in the national examinations in South Africa especially in the Eastern Cape and Limpopo Province (Progress in International Reading Literacy Study (PIRLS) 2006; DBE 2007; Annual National Assessment tests (ANA) Department of Education, 2011). All major stakeholders, learners, educators, parents, employers and the national Ministry of Education are concerned about the problem of poor learner performance in reading in the Foundation Phase in South Africa. This low internal efficiency of the education system simply implies more wastage and increases in the cost of education. By the fact that foundation phase learners are performing poorly is an indication that there is a need for better trained teachers and the use of research-based strategies of teaching reading. There is a need to gain a better picture on the causes and solutions to the problem and from the researcher’s point of view; we cannot underestimate the people who are directly facing these problems on a daily basis, such as the Foundation Phase teachers.

However, before such a discussion can be raised, the controversy surrounding the definition of reading by scholars must be addressed. It seems that ‘reading’ is an elusive concept.

Hellekjaer (2009, p. 23) states that reading comprises decoding of the written text on the one hand, and efficiently processing the information gained. This implies that in order to process information gathered this implies that teachers must encourage
learners to become actively involved in their own learning. Tollefson and Tsui (2008, p. 233) state that in South Africa the DBE’s language- in-education encourages the use of additive multilingualism but allows the governing body of each public school’s medium of instruction. The policy does not recommend any specific model, but does suggest the two such models are considered practical: the use of a first language as medium of instruction (with requirement that an additional language also be studied) and a "structured bilingual approach" (presumably, initial instruction through the L1, with a gradual transition to English).

South Africa has 11 official languages and the Constitution of the country allows learners to be educated in any of these languages as a first language/mother tongue. The importance of language to learner performance has been raised consistently in the research literature (Taylor et al, 2003; Fleisch, 2008, for example). A number of studies have looked at the strong relationship between learner performance on standardised tests and exposure to the test language at home (Howie et al, 2007; Reddy et al, 2005). The ‘causal’ nature of the relationship is, however, far from conclusive. The link between language proficiency and academic performance is not always well-understood, and is not straightforward. Fleisch (2008) is concerned with identifying the ‘generative mechanisms’ or the actual causal links between school 14 language practices and academic performance.

From the research literature he elicits five different generative mechanisms’. These are all derived from classroom-based studies. The first generative mechanism relates to ‘transfer theory’ and the density of unfamiliar words: the argument made here is
that learners should first master the decontextualized discourse of schooling in their home language before transferring to a second language. Heugh (2005a and 2005b) suggests that teachers focus on low level cognitive tasks as a way of managing children’s lack of mastery of language. Heugh uses the findings to argue for protracted mother-tongue instruction, MacDonald’s recommendations focus on improved teaching of English.

A second generative mechanism concerns the emotions of second language teaching: Probyn (2001) has identified stress and depression for second language learners as contributing to poorer performance. Thirdly, code-switching is a factor: (Setati & Adler, 2000) show how sophisticated the act of code-switching. Code switching and language translation also takes a long time, which the pacing of the official curriculum may not make allowance for. In short, when used for improved learning, code switching is a sophisticated and difficult strategy.

The researchers argued that learners in poor schools could often decode text (i.e. pronounce sounds and words) but had little understanding of what they had read (MacDonald, 1990; Flanagan, 1995). This formed part of the aversion to the teaching of phonics in curriculum revisions post-apartheid. Research also indicates that the struggle with reading is in second language (Taylor and Vinjevold, 1999; MacDonald 2002). The formal and appropriate teaching of phonics, especially in poor schools, is an area of dire neglect.

Pretorius and Machet (2004), state that teachers found an emphasis on ‘sound-centred readers’, where the focus was on decoding rather than meaning. This decoding related largely to single words, so that performance by learners dropped
radically from reproducing single words to reading a paragraph. Comprehension was found to be extremely poor. The lack of reading resources, and libraries in particular, was identified as an additional barrier.

Some of the factors identified as potentially affecting learners’ performance negatively were the high proportion of teaching and reading time, the lack of homework; and a lack of appropriate reading resources. The research found that the half-hour promoted by the DBE tended to be not enough for learners and teachers. The levels of cognitive challenge were very low.

The Language in Education Policy (LiEP) gives learners the choice of the LoLT (DBE, 1997, p.12). Learners in state schools in South Africa have the right to choose any of the eleven official languages as the LoLT and as a learning area from Grade 3 onwards (DoE, 1997, p.16), hence, learners may be taught in their mother tongue up to Grade 3, and then have the option of extending the use of their home language into the intermediate phase (DBE, 1997, p. 5); however, to make it practical, the LiEP makes provision for the consideration of learner numbers when making the choice of the LoLT.

In practice, the SGB (2000) decides on the LoLT. Although there have been changes in learner profiles and schools, are now linguistically diverse; many schools still choose to have English as the LoLT, . Inclusive education is not taking place as the school is not able to support the learners and teachers who are faced with language barriers. There is, therefore, a need for support for learners to improve their oral English language skills, as this would also assist in promoting their written language development.
In South Africa, reading problems tend to be masked by language proficiency issues. It is assumed that poor academic performance is caused by poor mother tongue proficiency. An associated assumption is that when learners have difficulty with using reading as a tool for learning then their comprehension problems are a product of limited language proficiency. This then leads to the idea that language proficiency and reading ability is alike (Pretorius, 2002, p.174). Though English is used as a main language of teaching instruction in South African schools, poor literacy results cannot be solely attributed to second language instruction as teachers and learners are struggling with literacy in the African Languages [AL] as well as English (Pretorius & Machet, 2004, p.47-48).

Improving the language proficiency of learners does not automatically improve their reading comprehension. Attention to reading improves reading skills and as a result language proficiency also improves, therefore, although reading ability alone cannot guarantee academic success, it is highly likely that a lack of reading ability can function as a key barrier to academic achievement (Pretorius, 2002, p.175). As Alexander (2006, p.2) notes, “Language medium policy and practice in and of themselves are a necessary but not sufficient explanation of poor academic performance. There are many other factors that are part of the causality. Of these, socio-economic status, teaching method and parental involvement are probably the most important”.

Classroom teaching for reading instruction needs to be considered as the critical factor in preventing reading problems and must be the central focus for change (Moats, 1999, p.10). As such, teachers’ acquisition of the teaching skills necessary to bring about the development of literate language competency are critical, especially
as, in South Africa, many assumptions have been largely unquestioned about how to teach reading and writing, which languages to use and what counts as high-quality practice in classrooms (Bloch, 1999, p.55-56). Stoller and Grabe (2001, p.99) emphasize that the requirements for the development of reading fluency necessitate that teachers, as well as curriculum developers, determine what instructional options are available to them, and how to go about the optimal pursuit of instructional goals in various contexts.

Soller and Grabe (2001, p.990) state that teachers who teach at English medium schools encourage parents to rather enrol learners in Grade 1 so they come right through the system. ‘The Xhosa-speaking learners, it is their second language but there are children who have been in public school since preschool that speak beautiful English. A Xhosa-speaking learner, however, that started at a public school two years ago struggles tremendously with English. When the Xhosa learners go back to their homes they have restricted contact with English because their parents are illiterate. The researcher in this study believes that what needs to happen is that local teachers need to go on workshops to learn to speak Xhosa paid for by the school or the department so as to least converse, in conversational Xhosa in order to teach in the mother tongue of learners because that is a problem.

Cummins (2008) states that learners who were exposed to English from a young age, for example from preschool or Grade 1, they were able to cope in the intermediate phase as their English language skills had had time to develop; however, if learners only enter the school in Grade 3 or 4 and have not been exposed to English prior to that, there is a language barrier. Not only do these learners need to acquire basic interpersonal communication skills (BICS), they also
need to develop cognitive academic language proficiency (CALP). According to the Education White Paper 6 (DBE, 2001), all learners have different learning needs and the education system is required to meet them. According to Cummins (2008), teaching and learning is a challenge for all concerned.

According to Cummins (2008), language proficiency is an unknowable abstraction that reflects the universal competence of native speakers. Poor language proficiency affects poor performance of Foundation Phase language learners because learners vary in the ultimate level of proficiency they achieve, with many failing to reach target-language competence. (Ellis, 1994) states that it may be more useful to think about proficiency as a process in which learners alternate in their use of linguistic forms according to the linguistic and situational context.

Vinke and Jochems (1993, p.84) indicate that the lower the level of English proficiency, the more important it becomes to define academic achievements. One the other hand, (Baker, 1988, p.73) indicates that while students are able to speak English, they still do not operate at maximum capacity because of the language barrier. Most English Second Language (ESL) lack literacy skills required for successful university study; that is, English for Academic Purposes (EAP).

English Language Proficiency is inhibited by a variety of factors such as a rural environment. A language of learning which inhibits acquisition of knowledge and restricts the development of learners’ cognitive, affective and social skills is caused by poor language proficiency (Webb, 2000). He further
states that it is commonly accepted that the low levels of Second Language proficiency of South African learners play a significant role in low academic performance. Pretorius (2001, p.52) indicates that although both language proficiency and reading skills are correlated strongly with academic performance, the ability to make inferences during reading, and to perceive the way in which textual information is linked consistently emerged as the stronger predictor of academic performance across all the disciplines. She further states that it is important to understand that academic performance is determined to a large extent by reading ability.

English language learners, as already stated experience difficulties due to lack of proficiency in the English language. English language learners may not even have the knowledge and skills to demonstrate academic competency in their home language (Betts, 2006, p.42). In the study conducted by Cummins (1994) on the impact of English language proficiency on academic success of first year black and Indian students at tertiary institutions, it was proved that the Indians exhibited superior English language proficiency levels as compared to their black counterparts.

Penny and Mackenzie (2006) state that with the respect to language, there has been a shift towards the adoption of bilingualism and in particular the use of mother tongue for the first few years of primary education within countries where a significant proportion of the population speak a minority of language. These changes are driven by research evidence that suggests that children acquire linguistic and cognitive skills more readily in their first language and are then able to transfer these to a widely-used language (L2). The Primary Reading Programme (PRP)
implemented in Zambia from 1998 is the same as in sub-Saharan African countries such as Uganda, Burkina Faso and Mali in using L1 as a medium of instruction for the first one or three years of schooling. L2 is introduced as a subject sometime between Grade 1 and Grade 3 and becomes the medium of instruction from sometime in Grade 4 (Penny & Mackenzie, 2006).

Penny & Mackenzie (2006) also state that outside of Africa, India’s National Curriculum Framework for School Education, published in 2005, strongly upholds the principle of L1 medium of instruction. The State of Andhra Pradesh started the process of introducing instruction in eight tribal languages in 2003 with the scripting and analysis of these languages. The power of modern software means that by 2006 curricular were being developed for Grade 1 and 2.

Thomas & Collier (2002) state that whilst use of L1 in the first few years of schooling has been demonstrably successfully raising literacy level, critics point out that educational success requires not just literacy but also Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency that is the complex of language and learning skill needed to carry out school tasks. Acquiring these skills takes time. North American evidence suggests that it can take up to seven years.

Cummins (2000) states that the most effective educational programmes for bilingual learners in North America is to develop cognitive academic language proficiency in the first language before transferring to the second language. With insufficient time, therefore, learners’ language skills may still be inadequate for the demands of the second language-medium curriculum (Macdonald, 1990).
The researcher noticed that the use of mother tongue in the Foundation Phase is very important. Most of the countries prefer using mother tongue in the Foundation Phase.

2.20 Support by the DBE to Foundation Phase teachers

According to Lambert (1998, p.5), all contributors, that is, teachers, principals and officials who understand the goals and key strategies for reading instruction so that the school continues to strengthen. Classroom teachers can strive to increase their skills, but they cannot succeed in isolation. Teachers need the support of other teachers, including the lead literacy teacher as well as the principal, central support staff and officials. Planned and sustained professional development is the key.

2.20.1 The lead teacher

According to the Department of Education (2001, p.58), every school with a Foundation Phase division should have a lead literacy teacher who has extensive expertise in reading instruction and staff development. The lead literacy teacher’s main goal is to improve reading achievement by working collaboratively with teachers to deepen their understanding of the reading process and extend their repertoire of instructional strategies. It also states that lead teachers support principals in ensuring effective reading instruction throughout the school. To be effective, lead literacy teachers should have a thorough conceptual understanding about the reading and writing process, about how learners and adults learn, and about how to create opportunities for them to learn effectively. It further states that lead literacy teachers must have a clear and well-articulated vision of what is...
possible in learner achievement in reading. If lead teachers are to fulfil their unique and pivotal role, their classroom responsibilities must take into account the time needed within the school day to model lessons and collaborate with, and mentor other staff.

2.20.2 The principal

Effective principals are committed curriculum leaders who are dedicated to making literacy a school priority. By sharing or distributing leadership, they build support for the school literacy plan and build capacity to achieve its goals. The Department of Basic Education (2001) also states that principals pay special attention to finding and developing in-school leaders, such as the lead literacy teacher, and to consolidating and extending the leadership skills of experienced teachers so that they can support their colleagues. Effective leadership in literacy goals involves identifying important literacy goals and enabling teachers to achieve those goals through supervision and support. The principals have a direct impact on teaching and learning by encouraging teachers to share with each other and identifying teachers who have exemplary practices.

2.20.3 The district officials

Elmore (2000 pp. 13, 15) states that sources in reading must be the concrete goal which results in tangible actions by teachers, principals and officials. Effective district officials assume responsibility for increasing learner achievement in reading in their districts and sustain this improvement by promoting shared or distributed leadership for literacy.
The district officials have a dual responsibility to supervise the development of and implementation of the district improvement plan and to ensure that the principals have developed and implemented the literacy component of the school improvement plan. Effective leadership by district officials in the area of literacy addresses the following areas: creating visions and focus-establishing polices that support effective literacy instruction; creating a climate of accountability for improvement and reading results; establishing a focus on reading at the local level; ensuring that reading initiatives are aligned at the proximal, board, school and classroom level; building leadership — support for principals, teachers and central support staff who are implementing new reading strategies and mentoring new principals in the development of a school literacy plan.

District officials are expected to build groups of teachers (at a system level) who have acquired strong instructional knowledge in reading as well as skills in coaching or mentoring. Their duties include the following:

Setting targets that improve learner achievement by sharing current assessment tools that are being used in reading; consulting with principals to set reasonable targets for reading levels; creating opportunities for principals to problem solve issues affecting learner achievement in their schools; managing resources by allocating funds to support success in school-based projects and also supervising the acquisition and development of resources to support learner achievement in reading.

2.20.4 Support at schools

All the stakeholders should know what their roles are and what is expected of them in terms of the policy. According to White Paper 6 (DBE, 2001a, p.29), every school
should establish an ILST, the primary function of which should be to put in place properly coordinated learner and teacher support services, mainly identifying and addressing learner, teacher and institutional needs (DBE 2002c, p.46). Classroom teachers at schools are required first to identify and deal with the learners’ problems and then, if they persist, the learner should be referred to the ILST.

The White Paper 6 (WP) (DBE 2001a, p.47) maintains that the education support services will be strengthened and will have at their centre the DBST, which is the core provider of support at district level. Members of this team are personnel currently employed at a district, regional or provincial level, including psychologists, therapists, remedial teachers and LSTs, special needs specialists and other health and welfare professionals (DBE 2005a, p.16). The main focus is on indirect support to learners through assisting teachers and the school management. Support is provided on issues of curriculum and institutional development to ensure that the teaching and learning framework is responsive to the full range of learning needs.

2.21 Conclusion

Relevant literature to the study has been reviewed to enable the researcher to be grounded in the nature and extent of challenges faced by teachers in applying reading strategies when teaching reading in the Foundation Phase. The researcher tried to connect the areas on which the literature was reviewed to the subsidiary questions of the study. The following chapter will highlight the research methodology and the justification for the method and research design used.
CHAPTER 3

3. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

In this chapter, the research processes involved are described. This is in keeping with (McMillan and Schumacher, 2000) view that the methodology should explain the general plan of the research, how the research is set up and how the methods of data collection and analysis are followed. The breakdown of this chapter includes the research paradigms, methodology, design, population and sampling. The ethical considerations guiding the study and the instrument used are also outlined. This is followed by the trustworthiness which includes credibility, transferability, dependability, conformability and authenticity.

3.2. The Research Paradigm

A research paradigm is a set of fundamental assumptions and beliefs about how the world is perceived (Jonker & Pennink, 2010). To this effect, the fundamental role of a research paradigm is mainly to guide the philosophical dimensions of Social Sciences. Mackenzie and Knipe (2001, p.2) believe that the research paradigm serves as logically-related assumptions, concepts or propositions that orientate the thinking of the researcher. A paradigm, to a large extent, is an overall conceptual framework within which researchers work (Sobh & Perry, 2005). Denzin and Lincoln (1998, p.200) define a paradigm as a set of basic beliefs (or metaphysics) that deal with the ultimate first principles, and represent the world view that defines, for its
holder, the nature of the “world”, the individual’s place in it and the range of possible relationships to that world and its parts.

In this study three paradigms are briefly outlined. These include: the positivist, post-positivist and constructivist paradigms.

3.2.1 Positivist paradigm

In the positivist paradigm, the object of study is independent of researchers; knowledge is discovered and verified through direct observations or measurements of phenomena; facts are established by taking apart a phenomenon to examine its component parts (Krauss, 2005). The investigator and the investigated “object” are assumed to be independent entities, and the investigator is assumed to be capable of studying the object without being influenced by it. When influence in either direction (such as a threat to validity) is recognized, or even suspected, various strategies are followed to reduce or eliminate the influence. Inquiry takes place as through a one-way mirror and values and biases are prevented from influencing outcomes, so long as the prescribed procedures are rigorously followed. Replicable findings are required to be "true."

The positivist paradigmatic view is of scientific research as an independent observation of objective reality (Krauss, 2005). Positivism maintains that and objective approach to studying social phenomenon is to use quantitative research methodology in data collection and analysis. Traditional positivism assumes that there is an objective reality independent of the observer and that, given the right methods and research design, one can accurately capture that reality. Nowadays,
positivism in the social sciences has changed. Questions and/or hypotheses are stated in propositional form and subjected to empirical tests to verify them; possible confounding conditions are carefully controlled (manipulated) to prevent outcomes from being improperly influenced. Summer (2003). The process of research, and thus the research methodology, is deductive and the purpose is to explain, predict, also experiments, quasi-experiments and use longitudinal and cross-sectional surveys (Summer, 2003). The positivist epistemology perspective in this study is to find out “how people know or think they know things” (Keeney, 1983, p.13, cited in Scully, 2002, p. 10). It is thus concerned with the nature of knowledge, what constitutes valid knowledge, what can be known and who can be a knower.

Ontologically, the positivists believe the world is independent of our knowledge of it – it exists ‘out there’, while for relativists and others, there are multiple realities and ways of accessing them; this realism is commonly called “naive realism” (Grary, 2002). An “apprehensible reality is assumed to exist, driven by immutable natural laws and mechanisms.” Knowledge of the “way things are” is conventionally summarised in the form of time and context-free generalisations, some of which take the cause-effect laws. Research can, in principle, converge on the “true” state of affairs. The basic posture of this paradigm is argued to be both reductionist and deterministic (Hasse, 1980).

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### 3.2.2 Post-positivism

The post-positivist assumptions hold true more for quantitative researchers than qualitative researchers. The knowledge that develops through a post-positivist lens is based on careful observation and measurement of the objective reality that exists “out there” in the world. According to Creswell (2008), developing numeric measures of observations and studying the behaviour of individuals becomes paramount for a post-positivist. Research in this mode requires an ability to see the whole picture, to take a distanced view or an overview. This kind of objectivity considers both the facts and the context. It requires a fair degree of passion and the ability to subject one’s own assumptions to scrutiny (Eagleton, 2003, p.135).

The post-positivism ontological perspective is that reality is assumed to exist but to be only imperfectly apprehended able because of basically-flawed, human intellectual mechanisms and the fundamentally intractable nature of phenomena. The ontology is labelled as critical realism (Cook & Campbell, 1979) because of the posture of proponents that claims about reality must be subjected to the widest
possible critical examination to facilitate apprehending reality as closely as possible (but never perfectly).

An important post-positivism epistemological perspective is that the resulting mixture or combination of objectivity and contextual subjectivity are complementary strengths and non-overlapping weaknesses of any research (Maree, 2007). Dualism is largely abandoned as not being possible to maintain, but objectivity remains a "regulatory ideal"; special emphasis is placed on external "guardians" of objectivity such as critical traditions (Do the findings "fit" with pre-existing knowledge?) and the critical community (such as editors, referees and professional peers). Replicated findings are probably true (but always subject to falsification) according to (Guba and Lincoln, 1994, p.110).

3.2.3 Interpretivist paradigm

The interpretivist paradigm was used in this study. Burke and Larry (2011) state that the research paradigm, once chosen, acts as a set of lenses for the researcher. (Maree, 2012), on the other hand, observes that interpretive research attempts to understand the processes by which we gain knowledge and so it has an affinity with the original diagnostic search for one’s true self. Ponterotto (2005) states that the interpretivist paradigm can be perceived as an alternative to the traditional or positivist paradigms. Interpretivism adheres to a relativist position that assumes multiple; apprehend able and equally-valid realities.

Interpretivism holds that reality is constructed in the mind of the individual. Van Wynsberghe & Khan (2007) agree that interpretivism focuses on meaningful social
action where an in-depth understanding of meaning is created in everyday life and the real world.

Creswell (2009) states that the constructivist paradigm assumes that social reality are the result of the subjective interpretation of individuals. For Leedy and Ormrod (2013, p. 75), the constructivist seeks a view “within the frame of reference of the participant as opposed to the observer of action”. This frame of reference is vital for undertaking research based on the challenges faced by teachers when applying reading strategies in the Foundation Phase in the Mthatha District. The interpretivist paradigm is based on the epistemology that encompasses a number of research approaches, whose central aim being to interpret the social world (Higgs, 2001). The purpose of basing this study on the constructivist paradigm is to understand the specific contextual essence of the challenges faced by teachers in applying reading strategies when teaching reading in the Foundation Phase in the Mthatha District (Fisher, 2007).

In the same vein, narratives are “verbal and consisting of someone telling someone else that something happened” (Smith, 1981). Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill (2007) define the interpretive paradigm as “a philosophical position which is concerned with understanding the way we as humans make sense of the world around us.” The interpretive paradigm believes in reality that consists of people’s subjective experiences of the external world (Terre Blanche & Durrheim, 1999, p. 6). The researcher shares this view, hence adopting the constructivist epistemology and using qualitative, interactional methodologies that rely on the subjective relationship between the researcher and the subject to reveal the subjective reasons. The
researcher concurs with (Crotty, 1998) who identified the following assumptions about interpretivism:

1. Meanings are constructed by human beings as they engage with the world they are interpreting. Qualitative researchers tend to use open-ended questions so that participants can express their views.

2. Humans engage with their world and make sense of it, based on their historical and social perspective; we are all born into a world of meaning bestowed upon us by our culture. Qualitative researchers seek thus to understand the context or setting of the participants through visiting this context and gathering information personally. They also make an interpretation of what they find, an interpretation shaped by the researchers' own experiences and backgrounds.

3. The basic generation of meaning is always social, arising in and out of interaction with a human community. The process of qualitative research is largely inductive, with the inquirer generating meaning from the data collected in the field.

This study used a solely qualitative approach in this study to understand and explain social phenomena such as the challenges faced by teachers in applying reading strategies when teaching reading in the Foundation Phase in the Mthatha District.

3.3 Research methodological choice(s)

Silverman (2000, p.88) states that research methodology is an approach or procedure to studying a research topic. Methodologies are research practice rather
than the philosophical concepts found in paradigms. A research methodology can either be quantitative or qualitative or both (mixed methods), depending on the researcher’s philosophical assumption and the nature of the research problem.

As stated, there are three main types of methods used in research: These include quantitative, qualitative and mixed methods (Sale, Lohfeld & Brazil, 2002). Quantitative research is a research technique that generates a mass of numbers of data that need to be summarised, described and analysed; the characteristics of the data may be described and explored by drawing graphs and charts, doing cross tabulations and calculating means and standard deviations (Lacey & Luff, 2009).

Mixed-method research is the combination of both quantitative and qualitative methods for the purpose of cross-validation or triangulation purposes (Sale, Lohfeld & Brazil, 2002, p. 47). There are several viewpoints as to why qualitative and quantitative methods can be combined: they are united by a shared commitment to understanding and improving the human condition, have a common goal of disseminating knowledge for practical use, and have a shared commitment for rigour, conscientiousness and critique in the research process (Richardt and Rallis, 1994, p.24).

Qualitative methodology on which this research is based is an approach that involves the use and collection of a variety of personal experiences, an introspective life story, observational, historical, interactional and problematic moments and meaning about an event of individuals' lives (Bashir, Afzal and Azeem, 2008).
Bogdan & Biklen (2003, p.194) describe qualitative methodology as procedures that derive data from people’s own spoken or written word and observable behaviour. The answer to the problem formulated on what challenges teachers face in applying reading strategies in the Foundation Phase class of the research area thus required a qualitative approach. The researcher used this logical approach or mode of inquiry because it is more “concerned with understanding the social phenomenon from the perspectives of the participants” (Heugh 2006, p.3).

Taylor (2005, p.3) argues that the practical nature of the research question justifies a qualitative approach, while (Bogdan & Biklen 2003, p.228-240) support Taylor in stating that a qualitative approach is preferred when research yields results that can improve practice through problem-solving and intervention. It therefore gives the researcher an opportunity to interact with the individuals or groups whose experiences the researcher wishes to understand. In qualitative research, information is often collected by conducting interviews, and those need to be planned and conducted in a way that encourages research subjects to feel they can speak freely (Denzin & Lincoln, 2003, p.30). Most important in qualitative research is the role that the researcher will assume during field work as he or she actually enters an interactive relationship with the participants.

In support of this, Neuman (2005, p.60) states that the strength of a qualitative approach is that it allows the researcher to create a deeper and richer picture of what is going on in a particular setting. Qualitative research adopts a common-sense view of generalisability, so that the reader is left to make up his or her own mind on how far the evidence collected in a specific study can be used to offer
information about the same topic in a similar setting. In this study, the researcher used qualitative research since this is a social study and qualitative research answers questions from social research.

3.3.1 Justification for Qualitative Approach

The researcher uses qualitative research because he/she requires a strong commitment to study a problem; it demands time and resources. Qualitative research shares good company with the most rigorous quantitative research, and it should not be viewed as an easy substitute for a "statistical" or quantitative study.

According to Denzin and Lincoln (2008, p. 1), both qualitative and quantitative modes are scientific and provide foundational reports about and representations of other. The researcher was aware that qualitative research as a field of inquiry in its own right is making great strides in gaining its own permanent space among other sciences and claiming its equal position with quantitative research in particular. The qualitative and quantitative researchers believe that qualitative research provides truthful and powerful information in order to understand the life of others through the use of interviews and observation. Denzin and Lincoln (2008, p. 1) state that quantitative researchers, however, argue that what is written using qualitative is not science but fiction.

Denzin and Lincoln (2008, p. 12) explain that the qualitative researcher insists that views in research science only cherish principles of neo-classical experimentalism. This researcher embraces the view held by Denzin and Lincoln who encourages qualitative researchers to think outside positivist principles and guidelines and deeply
reset the conservative approach which attempts to discredit the qualitative approach (Lichtman, 2011, p. 238).

The strength of qualitative research has been adopted widely by health sciences and nursing for good reason (Lichtman, 2011, p. 239). Lichtman (2011) explains that the discipline deals with the patients whom health science researchers have to support in the process of speaking and listening to their patients.

A qualitative approach can be attributed to specific, described techniques and theoretical frameworks that are used to collect data (Lichtman, 2011, p. 240). The researcher acknowledges the advantage of using a qualitative research design as the researcher was afforded an opportunity to conduct face-to-face interviews with the participants. The objectives of the study were to investigate the challenges faced by teachers and the reading strategies used in the Foundation Phase. Meaningful questions and examination of institutional processes were appropriate thus qualitative research seemed the best method to use. The research design used in this study follows and will be discussed.

3.4 Research Design

Maree (2007, p.70) defines the research design as a plan or strategy which moves from the underlying philosophical assumptions to specifying the selection of respondents, the data gathering techniques to be used and the data analysis to be done. According to McMillan and Schumacher (2001), research design is the plan that describes the conditions and procedures for collecting and analysing data. Research design under the qualitative approach includes:
3.4.1 Phenomenology

When conducting a phenomenological research study, a researcher attempts to understand how one or more individuals experience a phenomenon. The key element of a phenomenological research study is that the researcher attempts to understand how someone’s experiences a phenomenon from the person’s own perspective (Johnson & Christensen, 2012). The researcher has to enter the inner world of each participant to understand his or her perspectives and experiences.

Phenomenological research relies on participants’ experiences in order to obtain comprehensive descriptions of their lived experiences. These descriptions then provide the basis for a reflective structural analysis to portray the essence of the experience. Firstly the original data is comprised of ‘naive’ descriptions obtained through photo voice and participants’ narratives. Then the researcher describes the structure of the experience based on an interpretation of the research participant’s story.

3.4.2 Grounded theory

The research in this design needs to set aside, as much as possible, theoretical ideas or notions so that the analytic, substantive theory can emerge. Lichtman (2011) states that despite the evolving, inductive nature of this form of qualitative inquiry, the researcher must recognize that this is a systematic approach to research with specific steps in data analysis. The researcher faces the difficulty of determining when categories are saturated or when the theory is sufficiently detailed. The researcher needs to recognize that the primary outcome of a study is a theory with
specific components: a central phenomenon, causal conditions, strategies, conditions and context and consequences. These are prescribed categories of information in the theory (Lichtman, 2011).

3.4 .3 Ethnography

The researcher needs to have grounding in cultural anthropology and the meaning of a social-cultural system as well as the concepts typically explored by ethnographers (Leedy and Ormond, 2010). The time to collect data is extensive, involving prolonged time in the field. In much ethnography, the narratives are written in a literary, almost story-telling approach, an approach that may limit the audience for the particular work and may be challenging for authors accustomed to traditional approaches to writing social and human science research. There is a possibility that the researcher will "go native” and be unable to complete the study or be compromised in the study. This is but one issue in the complex array of fieldwork issues facing ethnographers who venture into an unfamiliar cultural group or system (Leedy and Ormond, 2010).

3.4.4 Multiple case study

A case-study design is an empirical inquiry in which the focus is on a contemporary phenomenon within its real-life context and boundaries (Yin, 1994). The case-study design is flexible to work with and refers to how well theory can be generated and tested using both inductive and deductive reasoning (Reddy, 2001, p. 53, Walliman, 2006, p. 46). Hammel and Fortin (1993, Yin 1998) state that case-study research excels at bringing us to an understanding of a complex issue or object and can
extend experience or add strength to what is already known through previous research. Case studies emphasize detailed contextual analysis of a limited number of events or conditions and their relationships. A case-study is not actually a data-gathering technique but a methodological approach that incorporates a number of data gathering measures. In this study the researcher used a multiple-case study.

For this study, multiple-case studies of 4 schools were used. The schools were in the same district with similar structures. The data collected in these schools focused on Foundation Phase teachers. According to (Maxwell, 2005), a multiple-case study attempts to understand the meaning for participants in the study events, experiences and actions they are involved with or engaged in. What motivates the researcher to consider a large number of cases is the idea of generalizability, a term that holds little meaning for most qualitative researchers. The justification of multiple-case study is discussed below.

3.4.4.1 Justification of a multiple case study

According to Neuman (1997, p. 33), qualitative researchers gather data on one or a few cases and go into greater depth. They obtain more details from a few selected cases while a quantitative researcher collects specific information from many cases and participants. A case-study makes it possible for the researcher to interact with the participants and become immersed in the processing of data collection. Case studies are useful in sampling because they clarify the units efficiently on the basis of the qualifications. For this study, Foundation Phase teachers were purposively selected based on their qualifications to teach reading in the Foundation Phase. The advantage of case-study design is its suitability for constructive and critical
approaches. (Maree’ 2007 Leedy and Ormond 2010) and Lichtman, 2011) state that the familiarity of the researcher with subjects and research sites in a study helps in understanding the lives of people and their culture. The research sites of the schools will be discussed below.

### 3.5 Research site

The research sites for this study were four junior secondary schools which consisted of 67 teachers and 1925 learners. School A comprised 20 teachers, School B 17, school C 15 teachers and School D 15 teachers. Learners in School A comprised 524 while in School B there were 589 at School C there were 350 learners and School D 372 learners. All learners were isiXhosa speakers. (McMillan and Schumacher, 2001, p.267) and (Maree ,2007, p.234) state that it is essential to select a research site that is suitable and feasible to use. This area is inhabited mostly by people who are illiterate and unemployed and few are adequately educated. The majority of the community’s residents have informal employment and they also depend on old-age pensions and child-support grants. These schools have no computers or photocopying machines. Teachers who go to these schools with new cars find they quickly become dilapidated with the use of bad gravel roads.

### 3.6. Population

According to McMillan and Schumacher (2001, p.169), population is a group of elements or cases, individuals, objects or events that conform to specific criteria to which one intends to generalize the results of the research. The
population for this study was the Foundation Phase teachers in the Mthatha District. The target population of this study consisted of the Foundation Phase teachers of the Gaduka Junior Secondary School, Ngangenyathi, Dikishe and Gobizizwe Junior Secondary Schools in the Mthatha District.

3.7. Sample and sampling procedure

Jackson (2003, p.19) defines sampling as “decisions about where to conduct the research and whom to involve; an essential part of the research process”, and adds that sampling “usually involves people and settings as well as events and processes”, hence, the researcher chose the participants and the research sites which would provide the most relevant information.

The researcher collected information regarding four Foundation Phase schools in the Mthatha District; this provided an accurate picture of those schools where the researcher needed to examine teachers. A research sample from four schools comprised sixteen Foundation Phase teachers (n-16), four teachers in each school. The rationale behind this choice was that Foundation Phase teachers at these schools were teaching reading strategies using different teaching approaches and methods. In this study, purposive sampling was used. The researcher used purposeful sampling because these teachers knew what the researcher required for her study.

Brand (2006, p.135-140) defines a purposive sample as one selected in a deliberative, non-random fashion to achieve a certain goal. This is based on the judgment of the researcher regarding the characteristics of a representative sample
and chosen on the basis of what the researcher considers as typical units (Brand, 2006, p.140-145). (Magolda & Weems, 2006, p.44) maintain that purposeful sampling strategies employed in a study are identified from prior information and are reported in the study to enhance data quality. The power and logic of purposeful sampling is that a few cases studied in depth yield many insights about the topic (Mouton, 2003, p.135). In purposeful sampling the selection of respondents is a key decision point. Respondents are selected to meet the particular goals of the researcher, such as ensuring heterogeneity or involving key persons in the research sample. Neuman (2005, p.219) points out that the key respondents will yield maximum information related to specific issues. In this study sixteen teachers who were teaching in the Foundation Phase were purposefully selected. The researcher had had the opportunity of meeting the teachers and knew what they were teaching through contact at workshops for Foundation Phase teachers.

Freedman (2005) explains that the basic idea in sampling is to estimate within a known range from the part to the whole; in other words, from the sample to the population. A sample must be chosen to fairly represent the population. When taking a sample from a population, it is important to work out how the sample will be drawn so as to represent the whole population.

According to Struwig and Stead (2010), purposeful sampling is a common sampling strategy which groups participants according to preselected criteria relevant to a particular research question. When using purposeful sampling, the sample size is often determined on the basis of theoretical saturation and it is most successful when data review and analysis are done in conjunction with data collection.
3.8. Data collection procedure

This section describes the procedures followed and the instruments used for data collection. Data were obtained through interviews for this study. Interviews were conducted in four Junior Secondary Schools from 4 participants in each school. The letters were delivered personally by the researcher to the principal at each school on the appointed dates between 1 and 10 February 2014 for individual interviews. Consent forms explaining the purpose of the research were given to the selected Foundation Phase educators in the schools. The forms were given to the identified Grades R, 1, 2 and 3 educators were work shopped by the researcher. The teachers were asked to complete and sign the forms by the principal. The individual interviews were conducted in Grade 3 classroom. The researcher introduced herself to each participant. Firstly the researcher asked for biographic information of the participant. Eight questions were posed for each participant. The researcher took 1 hour for each participant and also one day for each participant because they were busy preparing for examinations and because Grade R teachers needed more time to elaborate. In focus group interviews the duration was 45 minutes for each group. The data collection was carried out over one week for individual interviews and two days for the focus group interviews.

The letters for focus groups were delivered personally by the researcher to the principals at each school on the appointed dates. The researcher met the principal and organised a meeting with the teacher so that she could discuss the procedure. The researcher explained the purpose of the study and the role the researcher may play. Telephonic arrangements were made by the researcher and Foundation Phase
teachers about the dates on which to visit their schools. The focus group interviews were conducted in Grade 1 classroom. The researcher first introduced herself and the purpose of the focus group. The researcher asked for biographical information of each teacher. Eight questions were posed for the teachers. The researcher voice recorded the participants and also took notes during the interviews. She took one day to visit each school. Latter she transcribes the data.

The reason for selecting focus group interviewing for this study was that the technique is being increasingly used in qualitative research studies (DeVos, 2006, p.357) and also for the reliability of the study. Focus group interviewing is particularly effective in providing information about why people think or feel the way they do. Neuman & Roskos (2005, p.20) agree that it provides qualitative data that elicits insights into the attitudes, perceptions and opinions of participants regarding a specific matter.

Focus groups were used as an interviewing method when interviewing Foundation Phase teachers; in this study groups comprised four participants. A powerful means of exposing reality and investigating complex behaviour and motivation, (Ellenwood, 2007, p.36) describes them as a research technique that collects data through group interaction on a topic determined by the researcher. The participants were selected because they had certain characteristics in common that related to the topic. The group is usually focused in that it involves some kind of collective activity.

Another potential strength of focus groups is that the right group composition will generate free-flowing discussions that contain useful data (Coker, 2006, p.30). The researcher recorded the interviews on audio-tape and transcribed them for clarity so
as to be able to refer to them more readily during analysis. In contrast to the interviews, document collection is a non-interactive strategy for obtaining qualitative data with little or no reciprocity between the researcher and the participant (McMillan & Schumacher, 2001, p.451).

3.9 Pilot study

A pilot study was conducted before the main investigation commenced. In qualitative research the pilot study is usually informal, and a few respondents possessing the same characteristics as those involved in the main investigation in the study (Strydom & Delport 2005, p.331). By conducting the pilot study, the researcher was able to focus on specific areas that had been unclear previously, thus, the researcher was able to make modifications with a view to quality interviewing during the main investigation.

Piloting helps the researcher know whether the proposed method of collecting data is relevant in terms of achieving the goals of the study (McMillan and Schumacher 2006, p 128). Firstly during the pilot process the researcher developed the interview schedule in line with the objectives and the sub-research questions of the study. Secondly, the researcher sought permission from the principal of the school and from the teachers the researcher intended to interview. The researcher agreed on the venue, date and time of the interviews. Before asking questions, the researcher explained the purpose of the study and obtained the biographical information of each teacher. The purpose was to determine whether the relevant data could be obtained from the participants (Royse in De Vos 2002, p.217) and also to test the validity and reliability of the study and to avoid bias.
The pilot study was conducted at one school in the Mthatha district which had similar characteristics to the schools in the study. Two teachers participated, namely a Grade 3 and a Grade R teacher. The pilot study helped the researcher to make modifications with a view to quality interviewing during the main investigation. This involved estimating the time that should be allocated, as well as pre-empting the problems that may arise during actual qualitative interviews (Janesick in Denzin & Lincoln 1994, p.213). During piloting one hour was spent with each participant. The researcher decided not to reduce the time because less time would not be adequate. The pilot study was carried out over one week. Interviewing the participants was not a problem since prior arrangements were made with the principal. (Singer, Light and Willet, 1990, p.138) contend that pilot studies are always worth the time and effort as they point to areas that might need clarification. The questions have to measure what is supposed to be measured so one has to have sufficient time.

The researcher used the qualitative method involving a case study because it is confined with to school. The school was conveniently selected because of accessibility. Instruments were tested and adjusted. The instruments used were the interviews. The researcher used semi-structured interviews to avoid biasness. In addition she used voice recordings which were transcribed, organized, read several times, printed and coded. When the researcher interviewed the participants, the participants answered the questions appropriately. The participants obviously understood the questions and also provided the interviewer with further reading strategies in question one. In question three the participants told the researcher of the many challenges faced by the teachers. Later the re-test produced similar results. The responses of the participants alerted the researcher to further reading
strategies and challenges faced by teachers so modifications were made during piloting. The pilot study yielded significant data and it then became evident that two of the questions were difficult for the participants and would therefore not provide rich data. These are the examples of the questions that were asked in the pilot study:

Original interview schedule

1. Do you receive enough support from the DoE on how to teach reading strategies?

2. If no, how do you teach learners reading strategies?

During the main investigation, these first two questions asked in the pilot study were rephrased and shortened. It was necessary so that the participants would be able to understand them and respond accordingly as well as allowing the researcher to probe. Examples of the rephrased questions are as follows:

Revised interview schedule

1. How does the Department of Education support you in reading strategies?

2. How do you think lack of training affects reading performance of the learners?

Rephrased questions worked better and the participants were able to provide the researcher with the relevant answers. The same methods of data collection used in the pilot study were also used in the main research.

Data collection for Pilot study
The main purpose of data collection in research is to address the initial propositions of the study concerned (Mouton, 2003, p.145). An important aspect of this type of approach is that often it is observation that generates the investigation. Although qualitative research is not based on fixed and rigid procedures, it nevertheless provides the researcher with a set of strategies with which to organise the data, to collect data and to process (or to interpret) data, (De Vos et al., 2006, p.356). Strickland and Morrow (2006, p.260) state that the research design and data collection techniques are closely related. In this study the data collection methods therefore needed to be in line with qualitative research.

Ellenwood (2007, p.21) has written that data collection steps involve setting boundaries for the study, collecting information through observation, interviews, documentary data collection such as diaries, photographs, official documents, newspaper articles and visual materials and establishing the protocol for recording the information. For (Gall & Borg, 2007, p.227), and (Mouton, 2003, p.133), data collection is a process of capturing facts, information and figures based on the characteristics and the nature of the research problem.

According to Denzin (2003, p.21), the collection steps involve setting the boundaries for the study, collecting information and data and establishing the protocol for recording information. In this study the boundaries for data collection were influenced by the general research methods and the proposed research question. Findings should assist in making generalisations about the problem at hand, and in the formulation of recommendations that will serve as support material for schools. Data were collected based on the following qualitative research techniques:
3.10 Interviews

The instruments for data collection used in this study were the interviews. An interview is a form of data collection in which questions are asked orally and subjects’ responses are recorded either verbatim or summarized. There is direct verbal interaction between the interviewer and the respondents. The researcher used individual interviews and focus group interviews to show the reliability of the study. In individual interviews, the interviewer can observe non-verbal responses and behaviours which may indicate the need for further questioning to clarify verbal answers. The individual interviews involve direct contact between the researcher and the respondents. The interview was chosen because the interviewer could probe for more specific answers and could repeat a question when the respondent misunderstood the question.

McMillan and Schumacher (2006) say an interview involves direct interaction between individuals. Creswell et al, (2007) state that an interview is a qualitative data-gathering technique. The interview was chosen because of the following advantages: the interviewers can probe for more specific answers and can repeat a question when the response indicates that the respondent has misunderstood the question. The interview usually has a much better response than the mailed questionnaire and people who are unable to read and write can still answer questions in an interview. Interviews were used to collect data from the respondents (teachers) those involved individual interviews and focus group interviews. Individual interviews allowed the researcher to seek clarity on issues misunderstood or could take the participant back to issues discussed earlier for further elaboration.
This method of data collection was therefore suitable for finding out about the hidden challenges faced by teachers in the Foundation Phase. Maree (2007) explains that interviews allow the researcher to see the world through the eyes of the participants. Cohen and Manion (1994) note that the interview is the principal means of gathering information by providing access to what is inside the person’s head. This make it possible to measure what a person knows and what a person thinks. Therefore, interviews allow interviewees to express themselves freely in order to capture their innermost feelings on the issue being investigated. An interview schedule was used as a guide.

Qualitative researchers are encouraged to prepare a couple of questions to begin and guide the study (De Vos, et al). They suggest that there should be main questions followed by probing questions. An interviewer can standardize the interview environment by making certain that the interview is conducted in privacy, and that it is relatively quiet (White, 2005). McMillan and Schumacher (2001) mention that one advantage is that interviews result in a much higher response rate, especially for topics that concern personal qualities or negative feelings, however, they indicate that the primary disadvantages of the interview are its potential for subjectivity and bias, its higher costs, time-consuming nature and lack of anonymity. Denscombe (2003) suggests that using interviews has advantages such as the depth of information which can be elicited through probing the relevant subject and issues, and, furthermore investigation can be followed over a relatively lengthy period. He further states that when using interviews, respondents have the opportunity to expand their ideas, explain their views and identify what they regard as crucial factors. The researcher in this study established rapport with the
respondents because they were sharing ideas on a topic with which the researcher was very interested.

The interview schedules were used as tools to gather the data that the researcher felt were missing or insufficient. The first part of the entire interview was about biographical data of the respondents. It was later presented in the form of tables. The second part took the form of a discussion of the themes that emerged from the responses of the participants.

Ellenwood (2007, p.22) explains that one of the most popular techniques today is group interviewing, better known as ‘focus group interviews’, also regarded as one of the most suitable methods for this study. The rationale is that instead of interviewing one person at a time, one targets a group of people who can provide information on an issue or topic of interest. When conducted correctly, focus groups can be useful and revealing (Ellenwood, 2007, p. 23). Because of the dynamics of groups it is likely that the researcher will stir the group to express precisely what one had in mind (especially if discussing something that has great emotional meaning). The latter might seem beneficial from the researcher’s point of view but it is clearly dishonest. Groups must be given the freedom to express their own opinions and views and each participant must feel free to express his or her ideas, even if it is in direct opposition to the group’s view point (Ellenwood, 2007, p.25).

Focus group interviewing is particularly effective in providing information about why people think or feel the way they do; (Neuman & Roskos, 2005, p.20) agree that it provides qualitative data that elicits insights into the attitudes, perceptions and opinions of participants regarding a specific matter.
Focus groups are a powerful means of exposing reality and investigating complex behaviour and motivation, (Ellenwood ,2007, p. 36) who describes them as a research technique that collects data through group interaction on a topic determined by the researcher. The participants are normally selected because they have certain characteristics in common that related to the topic. The group is focused in that it involves some kind of collective activity. A potential strength of focus groups is that the right group composition will generate free-flowing discussions that contain useful data (Coker, 2006, p.30).

The researcher recorded the interview on audio-tape and transcribed them for clarity and so as to be able to refer to them more readily during analysis. The main reason for selecting focus group interviewing of teachers for this study was that the researcher wanted to test the reliability of the study.

3.10.1 Justification for using interviews

During the process of interviews the participants can provide detailed information (MacMillan and Schumacher 2008). For this study interviews were conducted at schools. Interviews are mid-way between observations and a flexible atmosphere. Yin (2003) Johnson and Christen (2008) state that the participants are usually responsive and this generates the quantifiable and in-depth data. The disadvantage of interviews that they are time consuming. For this study, it was convenient to conduct interviews at schools where Foundation Phase teachers were employed.
3.11 Ethical consideration

Ethical issues, according to (White, 2005, p.118), are generally considered in terms of permission, informed consent, rights of participants, confidentiality and anonymity. The researcher followed the following steps in order to deal with the ethical issues in this study.

3.11.1 Permission

The researcher wrote letters to the principals, District Office and to the Department of Basic Education of the Eastern Cape Province requesting permission to undertake this research. The Department of Basic Education responded positively.

3.11.2 Informed Consent

Obtaining informed consent implies that adequate information is given about the goal of the investigation and procedures to be followed during the investigation. The possible advantages, disadvantages and dangers, to which respondents may be exposed, as well as the credibility of the researcher ought to be communicated to potential subjects or their legal representatives (Babbie, 1998, p.205). Respondents in this study were informed about the purpose of the study and were given a chance to agree to participation. The researcher gave them informed consent forms to sign. These forms were being taken back to the university. Participation was voluntary.

3.11.3 Protection from harm

Participants should be protected from unwarranted physical and mental discomfort, distress, harm, danger or deprivation (Babbie, 1986, p.255). White (2005, p.189)
suggests that respondents in a research project should be allowed to exercise their right to be part of the research or not.

3.11.4. Rights for Participants

The participants were given the right to take part or to withdraw at any time if the wished.

3.11.5. Confidentiality

Confidentiality indicates the handling of information in a confidential manner. Cohen and Manion (2007 p.27) view confidentiality as a continuation of privacy “which refers to agreements between persons that limit others access to private information.” All the information obtained in this study is confidential and the researcher will not divulge any of the information to anyone. The participants were assured that the data collected was for academic purposes only, and would not compromise confidentiality.

3.11.6 Anonymity

Informants were anonymous. This was to safe-guard their identities and privacy. It was however, necessary that respondents be identified when for instance, reminders had to be sent to persons who had not responded, or when follow-up interviews had to be conducted with certain respondents (Scott, 1996, p.285).

3.12 Measures to ensure trustworthiness

Trustworthiness is a method of ensuring rigour in qualitative research without sacrificing relevance. The researcher strove to adhere to the principles of
trustworthiness throughout the research. Trustworthiness of data addresses issues of credibility, transferability, dependability, conformability and authenticity, which in quantitative research design are the equivalent of internal validity, external validity, reliability and objectivity, respectively (Guba & Lincoln 1994, p.300). In the next sections the five criteria to ensure trustworthiness and their relevance in the study are discussed.

3.12.1 Credibility

According to Guba and Lincoln (1994, p.307), credibility in qualitative research is the ability of the researcher to demonstrate a prolonged period of engagement with participants, to provide evidence of persistent observation, and to triangulate by using different sources, different methods and sometimes multiple investigators. To ensure that credibility was achieved, the researcher conducted in-depth interviews with teachers who had been in these posts for three years or more. Interviews allowed the researcher to gather as much information as possible, after which the respondents were able to verbalise their views. The researcher spent four days per week for two weeks with the participants, allowing for rapport to be built, and trust and confidence gained, a process referred to as ‘prolonged engagement’ (Polit & Hungler in Mahlo 2006.p.40).

3.12.2 Transferability

The extent to which the findings can be applied to other settings and contexts is known as ‘transferability’ (Guba & Lincoln 1994, p.316). It was hoped that some experiences of the teachers who were interviewed, and who represented the other
teachers who had been in the field for more than three years, could be transferred to a wider population of teachers in the Foundation Phase.

3.12.3 Dependability

Dependability of data is the extent to which the same findings could be repeated if the same research instruments were simulated with similar respondents under similar conditions (Creswell, 2003, p.220). A more direct method might be using overlapping methods. The researcher used interviews to understand the teachers’ experiences of applying reading strategies in the Foundation Phase in the Mthatha district in an attempt to achieve dependability.

3.12.4 Conformability

Conformability refers to the extent to which findings are free from bias (Guba & Lincoln, 1994.p.318). Throughout the data collection process, the keeping of a field journal allowed the researcher to record all issues that could affect a researcher, such as personal attitude and emotions, as well as those of the participants. The researcher ensured this by examining personal views, feelings and attitudes to determine how they would influence the investigation. Personal field notes about the researcher’s attitudes, feelings and reactions were recorded to minimise any bias and preconceived ideas about teachers in the application of reading strategies in the Mthatha District.

3.12.5 Authenticity

Authenticity refers to the true description of people, events and places. In qualitative research it indicates whether the description and the explanation interconnect. It is
the ability of the researcher to report on a situation through the eyes of the participants (Cohen et al. 2002, p.124 & 2007, p.139) and it establishes the degree to which different points of views are fairly and adequately represented (Denzin & Lincoln 2005, p.23). In order to enhance authenticity, the researcher asked the respondents to validate the identified themes for authenticity and ensure that their perceptions would be understood correctly, and would be accurately captured and reported (Denzin & Lincoln 2005, p.155).

3.13. Conclusion

This chapter presented aspects such as the choice of methodology, the research design, research paradigm, pilot study, research site, sample, sampling and data collection procedures. It covered the instrument used, which was interviews: that is, individual and focus group interviews and the fact that data was collected by making detailed notes on site (in the designated classroom). Data were collected based on schools, and information gathered was kept separately. Ethical considerations were discussed: this included permission to be sought, informed consent and the assurance of anonymity and confidentiality and trustworthiness. The next chapter deals specifically with data analysis, presentation and interpretation.
Chapter 4

4. PRESENTATION, INTERPRETATION AND ANALYSIS OF DATA

4.1 Introduction

In this chapter data is presented and analysis thereafter is discussed in detail. The appropriate qualitative strategies were used to analyse the data collected through interviews (individual and focus group interviews). The data attempted to answer the main research and sub-research questions raised in Chapter one. The researcher used qualitative data analysis in order to make sense of the data. Data analysis requires the reduction and interpretation of the voluminous information of data collected (Mouton 1996, p 161); in this case sixteen Foundation Phase teachers who were at the selected schools were interviewed regarding challenges faced by teachers in applying reading strategies in the Foundation Phase. These comprised eight teachers for individual interviews and another eight for focus group interviews.

Qualitative data were collected from Foundation Phase teachers. Below is an identification of participants used in the study.

GRA – Grade R school A

GRB – Grade R school B

G1A – Grade 1 school A

G1B – Grade 1 school B

G2A – Grade 2 School A
4.2 Data Presentation

The analysis of data is a process that involves intuition of, and obtaining understanding of data collected, as well as an explanation of correlation among various elements of data (David and Sutton, 2004, p.375). There were only four Junior Secondary School involved in this research and only eight interview questions processed from these four selected schools. The target group was 16 Foundation Phase teachers eight: teachers were for individual interviews and eight for the focus group interviews. The above sample was chosen by means of purposeful sampling. All selected schools were in the Mthatha education district in the Eastern Cape. Interviews were used as an instrument to collect data.

4.3 Analytic method

When interviewing the participants the researcher used her cell phone for recording and writing short notes in a note book. When transcribing, the researcher also used a note book to transfer the data to her laptop to keep the information safe. The researcher personally transcribed the data little by little and often, making sure that she played and replayed the recordings while reading what she had already transcribed until she had finished. According to Maree (2012, p104), all data collected by electronic or digital means must be transcribed and this is best done by oneself as one can probably include some non-verbal cues in the script; silence may
communicate embarrassment or emotional distress, or a simple pause for thought, hence, data were personally transcribed. The researcher duly organised the information and read it several times. After sorting and typing data the text was read and re-read because good analysis often depends on the thorough understanding of data (Maree, 2012, p104). Themes were mainly established from coding (clustering similar codes or patterns) and categorising into emerging themes. In this study themes emerged from meaningful responses of the participants. After all these processes, all data were saved in a separate file and printed so that the researcher had a hard copy to work on.

### 4.4 Coding

Coding is a process of reading carefully through one’s transcription of data line by line and dividing it into meaningful analytical units (Macro 2007). The process entailed the presentation of data which was followed by the analysis thereof regarding responses to interview questions that were posed to each of the teachers. Responses from the interviewers were coded and analysed to form codes, categories and themes. A code is a descriptive name for the subject matter or topic (McMillan and Schumacher 2006). Basic steps in coding, regardless of the type of interview being coded or how the information is to be used, are essential in any reliable coding process. In this study, the data gathered were presented and analysed according to themes drawn from research questions to ensure that data collected answered the relevant sub-questions and, in turn, the main research question. In coding, the researcher is looking for similarities, patterns, concepts and number of
times used. Data were coded during transcription and themes derived from sub-questions guided the coding.

4.5 Biographical information of respondents

This table was specifically formulated to describe and portray the characteristics of the respondents such as: experience, qualifications, training and rank. There is a composite table at the end. This table has been developed to illustrate the noteworthy aspects that emanated from data analysis.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Respondent</th>
<th>Experience</th>
<th>Qualification</th>
<th>Have you been trained to teach?</th>
<th>Rank</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Grade R A</td>
<td>2 Years</td>
<td>ECD NQF Level 5</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Practitioner</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grade R B</td>
<td>1 Year</td>
<td>Grade 12</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Practitioner</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School C</td>
<td>1 Year</td>
<td>Grade 12</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Practitioner</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School D</td>
<td>3 Years</td>
<td>Grade 12</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Practitioner</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grade 1 A</td>
<td>12 Years</td>
<td>FDE</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Post level 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grade 1 B</td>
<td>6 Years</td>
<td>NPDE</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Post level 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School C</td>
<td>8 Years</td>
<td>ACE</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Post level 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School D</td>
<td>14 Years</td>
<td>Junior Primary Diploma</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Post level 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grade 2 A</td>
<td>8 Years</td>
<td>Junior Primary Teaching</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Post level 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grade</td>
<td>School</td>
<td>Years</td>
<td>Diploma</td>
<td>Trained</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-------</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>D</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>ACE</td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**TABLE 3:** The table above indicates that the number of educators in terms of gender was not equal as all were females.

The choice of participants was guided by their valuable information relevant to the study and not informed by gender. This table indicates that the majority of teachers had been trained as teachers and had experience in the Foundation Phase. It was only the Grade R teachers that had been not trained while only Grade 3 teachers had experience and also high qualifications. All teachers were in post level one. The next section focuses on the profiling of the participants.

**4.6 Profiling of participants**

The researcher used eight Foundation Phase teachers in data collection. All the teachers were females. The respondent for Grade R in School A had two years’ teaching experience and Early Childhood in National Qualification Foundation level 5
qualifications. She had not been trained as a teacher but is a practitioner. The respondent for Grade R in school B had one year experience, a Grade twelve qualification, and had not been trained. The Grade one teacher for School A had a Further Diploma in Education and had trained for this phase; she had twelve years’ experience and was a post level one teacher. In both schools, Grade R teachers told the researcher that they were not trained for this phase. The respondent for Grade one School C had taught for six years in the phase and had a National Professional Diploma in Education. She was trained for this phase and was a post-level one teacher. Teachers for Grade one had been trained and they had experience in this phase. The respondent for Grade two School A had eight years’ experience in the phase. She had a Junior Primary Teacher’s Diploma and had been trained as a post level one teacher. The respondent for Grade two in School B had six years’ experience. She had a National Professional Diploma in Education and had been trained as a post-level one teacher. The respondent for Grade three in School A had 19 years’ experience, a B.ed qualification, was trained for this phase and was a post-level one teacher. The Grade 3 teacher in School B had 23 years’ experience, had an Advance Certificate in Education, had been trained for this phase and was also a post-level one teacher.

4.7 Data Analysis and Interpretation

In this study, data were obtained through two kinds of interviews, that is, individual interviews and focus group interviews. Sixteen Foundation Phase teachers were observed at the four schools. Narrative analysis was used in this study to outline the segments from the research instrument in order to establish themes that could
develop data. Bui (2009) states that one way to report results or findings from narrative data are to organise them around major themes. In this study data that were collected from individual interviews and focus group interviews were narrative. When data were collected through interviews and other forms of data collection such as eye witnessing and voice recording this helped the researcher in the transcription of data.

4.7.1 Data analysis for individual interviews

Data obtained from individual interviews of 8 teachers were transcribed into text. Data were chunked into smaller units so as to attach codes. The grouping of codes was identified to form categories and then emerging themes were established. The following are the emerging themes.

Reading strategies used by teachers in the Foundation Phase

The participants used many reading strategies in the foundation Phase. All participants indicated that the following strategies were the strategies that they used in the Foundation Phase: reading aloud, independent reading, group-guided reading, re-reading, comprehension strategies and word-attack strategies but they used them differently when applying them. The researcher noticed that the teachers knew the reading strategies and they were comfortable with them. Moreover, the participants agreed that they used different reading strategies and that means teachers were satisfied with these reading strategies. These were the few verbatim responses from the participants:

GRA said,
I like these reading strategies because it assists me to identify learners who have difficulties in reading.

The advantage of reading is that learners are able to choose their own books to read, and also learners like to express themselves in English and summarize the story in their own words. GRB said,

These reading strategies are the best for the Foundation Phase because learners learn from others and learners imitate what other learners say.

The researcher noticed that those who were unable to read learnt from their peers and also easy to identify and correct learners when pronouncing words and understanding meaning of words. G1A concurred by saying that,

The advantage of group and independent reading enables me to identify errors whilst reading takes place.

She was supported by G2A, who said,

I like group-guided reading and independent reading because they enable me to support a small group of learners as they read.

The participants were very impressed by the independent reading strategy because it helped the learner to be confident. It was therefore a preferred strategy.

**Challenges faced by teachers in applying reading strategies**

Teachers faced many challenges in applying reading strategies in the Foundation Phase. All the participants indicated that they faced challenges such as lack of
teacher training, lack of parental involvement, insufficient allocation of time, lack of motivation, lack of resources and poor environment of learners such as parents being illiterate. They also said that they did not have libraries or enough books for reading which would motivate and inspire learners to read. The availability of a library in schools has a positive impact on reading and the teachers maintained that this would be an encouragement for learners to read books in the library at schools.

All the participants agreed about lack of parental involvement. A common comment was that some parents did not even bother to go to school and check on the performance of their learners. It is assumed that uneducated parents tend to distance themselves from participating in their children’s work. They tend to have a poor self-image because of their illiteracy and, consequently, many do not see any role that they can play in their children’s education.

All the participants complained about parents’ illiteracy by saying most parents could not read or write and did not look at their children’s books when they came home from school. The same participants raised the assumption that because parents were illiterate, it was challenging for parents to check on their children’s work such as homework. The implication of the above statement on children is reading could be that parents did not motivate their children to read and this had a negative impact on children’s reading skills.

Participants G1B also complained about illiteracy of parents as a handicap that made it difficult for parents to assist their children. She pointed out that,
Parents who are uneducated find it difficult to assist their children to read as educated parents assist their children.

There should be a link between parents and their children’s education. It is assumed that educated parents take more interest in their children’s education than those who are not educated. It is believed that educated parents understand the value and importance of reading better than illiterate parents, hence encouragement by educated parents for their children to read.

Participant G3B pointed out that,

Educated parents assist their children with homework and their children read at home.

This confirms that the view educated parents play a valuable role in their children’s school work. Educated parents usually assist their children with school work such as homework and on finding the relevant literature for them. In addition participant G2B and GRB said that,

Educated parents assist their children by buying them educational material so that they can use it when they come home from school.

This suggests that educated parents understand the importance of reading, and sometimes bring leisure-time reading material such as magazines. According to these participants educated parents know that reading can also be enhanced through leisure-time reading material.
Others agreed and substantiated the fact that their learners who came from educated families were more exposed to reading materials than learners from uneducated families because,

Educated parents buy their children educational toys and they take their children to pre-schools before they start Grade R. Educated parents buy educational material such as toys and story books for their children. One of the participant supported by saying that “educated parents were fortunate enough to be able to buy educational materials for their children. All these teachers had problems with parents at school.

**Overcoming the challenges faced by teachers in the Foundation Phase**

With regard to overcoming these challenges the participants indicated that they overcame these challenges by borrowing books, buying one book and photocopy it, asking Head of the Department of the Foundation Phase to call a parents’ meeting, writing letters for parents to see the performance of their children, giving extra classes for the learners. Teachers did make corner libraries with books borrowed to other schools because there were no libraries in these schools. It was evident that teachers had challenges with reading. The lack of material and parental involvement affected the reading ability of learners.

With regard to overcoming these challenges the participants had this to say:

One participant said,

*I borrow books, buying one book and photocopy it. I also asked the Head of the Department of the Foundation Phase to call parents’ meeting, writing letters for*
parents to see the performance of their children, and also I buy flash cards, charts and clay. Both participants (GRA and GRB) said,

*I make small-corner library in my class for learners because there is no library in my school, also no books.*

She indicated that,

*Most of the time I have to code switch because some learners do not understand English and borrowing books from other schools.*

Other than buying flash cards, respondents G1A and G1B also reported that,

*I sometimes buy artwork made from clay and the subject advisers praised the idea of using clay models to stimulate learning and creativity among learners.*

G3A mentioned that,

*I bought artefacts or artwork made from clay then showed his/her learners.*

The learners were then expected to create their own clay artwork, thus enhancing reading, while also encouraging creativity among learners.

**Training of teachers to teach reading strategies in the Foundation Phase**

Participants seemed to reflect the real situation on the ground by indicating it was clear that the Grade R teachers had not been trained in reading strategies as they did not apply the reading strategies properly as per requirements of the Department of Education. Teachers are supposed to first introduce the learners to the key words followed by flash cards and thereafter the reading of a text. Some participants did
not receive specific training to teach reading and this affected the performance of learners in reading.

In response to the above, a Grade R participant said,

*I assisted by other Foundation Phase teachers and they told me that learners start reading the first paragraph of the book, and then use flash cards.*

The researcher noticed that learners in these Grade R teachers’ classes just memorizing the book, they could not understand the meaning. She also said

Slow learners cannot even know how to open the book and affects the learners because they feel embarrassed and have inferiority complex because other learners laugh at them.

Eight participants said,

*We were trained to teach reading strategies during workshops and at colleges by having to use flash cards consisting of words to be taught, starting with the key words. Before reading the appropriate books, learners also read the words from the chalkboard.*

The above responses from participants revealed that the training received by the participants involved the reading of words and paragraphs from the books and flash cards. This approach is in line with the policy of the Department of Basic Education which requires Foundation Phase educators to introduce learners to keywords, then to flash cards and then to reading the paragraphs, however, reading at the
Foundation Phase is supposed to also focus on phonemic awareness, fluency, phonics and accuracy (Department of Education, 2011 p.10).

Participant G1B said,

_I was trained to teach reading strategies through workshops to allow learners initially to read the difficult words._

She went on to say,

Learners write down the difficult words in the book to become familiar with words and the learner starts reading the book and learners don’t read by themselves but in the groups.

"The researcher agreed with the participants with the above statement because if the teacher starts with the key words when reading it is easier for the learner than having to start reading the book.

**Resources needed to facilitate the implementation of reading strategies**

Schools at which the researcher conducted interviews with participants experienced a problem regarding resources. When the participants were asked about the use of resources, they mentioned using many resources: All participants said they implemented reading strategies by using resources like flash cards, charts, sentence strips, corner libraries, magazines and pictures. The participants emphasised the value and the importance of resources in reading strategies.

The above list was supported by G3A when she pointed out,
We use charts, flash cards, pictures and books which are on the level of the learners and which are the best for me.

The above statement further supports the point that teachers were comfortable when using these resources for reading strategies. In short, these resources play a very positive role in reading strategies, despite the lack of libraries.

According to the view of G1A,

*Learners can read magazines, newspapers and have access to the information they need from a library but with no library, learners are not used to reading magazines and newspapers because they do not know where to get them.*

This view highlights the importance of a library as a reading and information source and therefore extra reading material such as magazines, story books and newspapers could stimulate learners and instil a culture of reading among them.

According to G3A,

*The availability of library can improve learners’ reading ability because they will read different books but, non-availability of library affects learners negatively because library helps in motivation of learners to read books.*

This comment by respondent G3A showed that the lack of resources such as books affected the reading ability of learners. The participant highlighted the point that the availability of resources such as a library would motivate learners to read.

G3B said,
With the availability of a library, learners read fluently non-availability of library means learners cannot read because there are no interesting books for reading even in their spare time. Foundation Phase read better if there is enough material at schools.

**Use of mother tongue as a medium of instructions to teach reading**

Language of learning and teaching (LOLT) in the Foundation Phase is a problem. Participants were angry.

One said,

*The Department of Education is changing the curriculum every now and again.*

Also Annual National Assessment (ANA) confused us I thought that ANA is a curriculum but it is an assessment to see the performance of learners for September only not for final examinations and second language affect the performance of learners because learners cannot read the instructions in ANA correctly.

Some learners did not understand the reading instructions in English especially when writing the Annual National Assessment. The teachers invariably resorted to code switching while teaching this interviewee said,

I decided to explain in isiXhosa when I read the instructions learners just open their eyes while the teacher reads in English. Learners are struggling very much with building words and constructing sentences that means learners were affected by the use of second language in the Foundation Phase...
This confirms that learners had a problem with ANA and teachers became frustrated because learners could not understand and consequently failed ANA because of the language (L2) used in rural public schools. Foundation Phase learners also encountered a problem with spelling, sounds, reading fluency and accuracy and with comprehension.

The response from G1A was,

*CAPS is the right curriculum for learners because learners try to build simple words and sentences in the Foundation Phase because teachers teach reading in their home language.*

This statement indicated that teachers were satisfied with CAPS. This means that the Department of Education (2013, p. 5) in Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement (CAPS) is right when they say all Foundation Phase teachers must teach all the subjects in isiXhosa as learners can understand better in their home language. Learners in the Foundation Phase must start from the known to the unknown so that they enter the Intermediate Phase with basic knowledge of the other language (L2).

**Support by DBE for Foundation Phase teachers in the teaching of reading.**

Regarding a lack of support provided by the Department of Education authorities for some Foundation Phase teachers, the participants reflected different levels of satisfaction when it came to the support they received from the Education authorities concerning the teaching of reading to the Foundation Phase learners in the participating schools.
A Grade R teacher from School A complained that they were not assisted by the Department of Education officials in the teaching of Foundation Phase learners. Instead they were getting assistance from other Foundation Phase teachers in clusters regarding reading strategies.

She said,

*I did not receive enough support from the Department of Education because Grade R teachers work shopped by other Foundation Phase teachers.*

This was also confirmed by a teacher in School B supported her by saying she went to a nearby school for assistance in teaching of reading strategies.

To this effect she said,

*I decided to go to a nearby school to make lesson plans with them.*

The other teacher from School C also repeated the same complaint about lack of departmental support when she emphasized the point by saying,

*I decided to use one reading strategy for Grade R, that is, group reading because I became confused when I used all the reading strategies at the same time.*

The teacher in School D supported the other three participants on the issue of lack of support in Foundation Phase teaching of reading when she said,

Other Foundation Phase teachers assist me in teaching reading strategies.

A Grade R teacher said,

*I did not receive formal training in reading.*
Two teachers complained that they did not receive formal training in teaching reading in the Foundation Phase level and neither did they receive enough support from the Department of Education. The majority of the participants, however, reported that they had received support from the Department of Education and that the support they received was mainly in the form of workshops organised by Subject Advisors and also by the principals of the schools and the lead teachers at the schools. They were encouraged to form clusters so that there could be uniformity in the teaching and learning among cluster schools. To support the fact that other teachers did receive some form of support from the Department of Education, two participants (G3A and G2B) from School A and School B, respectively, agreed unanimously when they said:

*We did receive enough support from the Department of Education because principals organise competitions and language festivals for reading.*

Another teacher from School C concurred with the participants quoted above on the positive support from the Department of Basic Education when she said,

*The Department of Education give us support through workshops and also have lead teachers in our schools’.*

There is, therefore, a need for the Department of Education to support the two educators who claimed that they were not supported.

**Use of reading strategies**

All respondents agreed that when doing group-guided reading they grouped learners according to their reading abilities so that they could assist the slow learners more.
This indicated the varying abilities of learners; teachers needed to observe the learners carefully to assist those who had barriers.

G1B said, *in group-guided reading I group learners according to their abilities and I observe them whilst reading, and after that I paired the learners so that it can be easy for me to identify those that they have barriers.*

All respondents indicated that in independent reading teachers read the book alone aloud with the emphasis being on how to pronounce words. In addition learners chose the books in the corner libraries on their own.

The participant said, *I read the book for the learners and they follow me.*

Regarding word-attack skills, G3A responded differently from G3B, G3A by saying,

*When I used word-attack skill, I use fingers when I read the word so that learners know how many fingers I used for this word.*

This showed that if the learner spelt the word she or he would know how many fingers the learner must use for each word, whereas G3B spelt the sounds of each difficult word. This showed that Foundation Phase learners must spell difficult words whilst reading. Both respondents for G3A and G3B used the comprehension reading strategy to check that learners comprehended and also know the meaning of words by using dictionaries.
## 4.7.2 Summary of themes

### Individual interview

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Codes</th>
<th>Categories</th>
<th>Themes</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Reading strategies</td>
<td>Group reading, Reading aloud, Independent reading, Shared reading, Paired reading, and Re-reading aloud.</td>
<td>Use of different reading strategies</td>
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<tr>
<td>Challenges teachers faced</td>
<td>Lack of training on how to teach reading, Lack of resources and Parental involvement, Multilingualism, Insufficient time allocation</td>
<td>challenges faced by teachers to teach reading strategies</td>
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<td>Overcoming of these</td>
<td>Making copies, Buying books, Borrowing books.</td>
<td>Improvisation of reading materials</td>
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<tr>
<td>challenges</td>
<td>Parents buying learners educational toys</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Parents doing extra reading at home</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Parents bringing children magazines and newspapers for their children</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Parents making up stories for their children</td>
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<tr>
<td>Reading material used by</td>
<td>Using pictures, flash cards, magazines, phonics, vocabulary and books</td>
<td>Resources needed to facilitate the implementation of reading strategies</td>
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<td>teachers</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Use of sentence strips and corner library,</strong></td>
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<td><strong>Teacher training</strong></td>
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<td></td>
<td>receive training in reading</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Uncoordinated training.</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Training to teach English reading in the Foundation Phase</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Effects of use of second language</strong></td>
<td>Learners memorise the book without meaning. Learners have difficulties in reading instructions. The teacher code switches whilst teaching reading.</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The effect of second language on learners’ performance when teaching reading</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Support from the DoE</strong></td>
<td>By attending workshops and language festivals. Literacy leaders organise competitions in their schools. The principal must make sure of the curriculum. Subject advisors must assist the teachers in reading.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Support from the DoE for Foundation Phase teachers in the teaching of reading.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Use of reading strategies</strong></td>
<td>Grouping the learners in tens, Whole class reading, independent reading. The learners read and the teacher monitor them guiding learners to choose books for reading, reading the book aloud using gestures, grouping learners according to their reading abilities. First read the story aloud alone</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Importance of using reading strategies</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

**TABLE 4:** This above table shows how data from the literature and the research instrument helped in the analysis of data collected to list the themes with codes and categories as shown.
The researcher then synthesized the unfolding themes, as shown, to determine the findings with reference to the tools and literature related to the study. After consideration of themes, she presented the findings based both on the literature and the research tools used in this study.

4.7.3 Focus Group Interviews: data analysis for School C

Data gathered from the focus group interviews (involving a total of four teachers) were transcribed. The responses were placed in tabular form that allowed the researcher to make connections in the form of categories and emerging themes. From the categories, the emergent themes were established.

Reading strategies that are used by teachers in the Foundation Phase

Regarding the analysis of participants’ responses about different reading strategies used by teachers in the Foundation Phase, all the participants indicated that they used the same strategies because their schools were in rural areas. Their learners became confused if they used many reading strategies. They also indicated that their classrooms accommodate large numbers of learners so there was not enough space for a variety of reading strategies. They used reading aloud, shared, group-guided, and independent reading as strategies. They also taught phonics.

A participant from School C responded by saying, *in my class I used only reading aloud and independent reading because I have no space for shared reading and also to make groups in my class.*
**Use of reading strategies**

Respondents agreed that when applying group-guided reading, they grouped learners in tens and the teacher monitored the learners. The learners also read independently to ascertain the barriers if any of each learner. This showed that the teachers observed the learners carefully to assist those who had barriers that needed attention.

School C participant pointed out that, in group guided reading *I group learners in 10s and I monitor them whilst they are reading.*

The participant also said, *I observe them whilst reading, and after that I paired the learners so that it can be easy for me to identify those that they have barriers.*

Participants indicated that in independent reading, teachers read the book aloud with the emphasis on how to pronounce words. Learners chose books in the corner libraries on their own.

She said, *I read the book for the learners and they follow me.*

**Challenges faced by teachers in applying reading strategies**

All the respondents indicated that they faced challenges such as lack of resources, lack of teacher training, lack of parental involvement, insufficient time for reading, multilingualism and lack of motivation. They wanted the DoE to come to schools twice a year to check the needs of the school because schools had many challenges and the teachers needed support and resources.
Participants from School C complained that, the illiteracy of parents is a problem; that made it difficult for them to assist their children.

The participant said, *most parents cannot read and write and do not assist their children in reading and homework.*

The researcher noticed that there was a big problem in that particular community concerning the illiterately of parents, as a result these parents could not assist their children at all.

Participant from school C said some parents do not even bother themselves to go to school and check the performance of their children; they only insult us of not teaching their children; they are not teachers.

They said, *abatitshala bayabhalwa ngurhulumente ngokufundisa abantwana bethu batya le mali qha.*

**Overcoming the challenges faced by teachers in the Foundation Phase**

With regard to overcoming these challenges, the respondents indicated that they overcame these challenges by borrowing books or buying one book and photocopying it. They sometimes asked Head of the Department of the Foundation Phase to call a parents’ meeting, to write letters asking parents to come and discuss the performance of their children. Teachers bought flash cards and sentence strips, charts and clay. It was, however, evident that there was not enough material for teaching and learning; the participants improvised by buying some reading material for their learners. The lack of material and parental involvement affected the reading of learners negatively.
A participant from School C said, *When I attending moderations, in our cluster, it is where I meet other teachers to assist me on how to overcome other problems. Most of the time I had to code switch because some learners do not understand English and borrowing books from other schools.*

Other than buying flash cards, a participant from School C reported that, I sometimes bought artwork made from clay and the subject advisers praised the idea of using clay models to stimulate learning and creativity among learners.”

The learners then were expected to create their own clay artwork, thus enhancing reading, while also inducing creativity among learners.

She also said, *"I made extra classes for my learners for reading so that they can use in reading and read fluently and with meaning.*

**Resources used to facilitate reading strategies**

All the participants agreed that they implemented reading strategies by using resources like charts, pictures, magazines, flash cards and sentence strips. They bought these resources from their own pockets. The respondents also stated that it is very important for Foundation Phase learners to use pictures when they read because they see the picture and are alerted what happen in the story.

The above statement supports the point that teachers were very satisfied when using these resources for reading strategies; this means these resources play a very positive role in reading strategies, despite the lack of libraries.
A Participant from School C pointed out that, ‘Flash cards make learners familiar with the words when reading and also charts helps teachers to write paragraphs of each story so that learners can read.’

**Lack of training of Foundation Phase teachers in reading**

Some participants were not trained for this phase. They were assisted by other Foundation Phase teachers and also attending in clusters. The Grade R teachers had not been trained in reading strategies but other participants were trained to use reading strategies.

A participant from School C said, “I did not receive specific training to teach reading; other Foundation Phase teachers assisted me during the period of reading. Learners in my class started make noise during that period because they want to read; all of them not looking in the book; they just memorising the book’ “Slow learners are just mumbling. As a result I do not like reading, especially with in Grade R learners and it affects them because they do not know how to read.

A participant from School C indicated that, “I was trained to teach reading. “She said, “I was trained through workshops done by the subject advisors. I also trained through in-service training”. She also said, “my learners can read the difficult words in the book because they know the phonics. Learners can summarise the story”.

The teacher must teach learners phonics so that learners know the letters of the alphabet. The teacher must start by teaching the difficult words before reading the book. She should write the difficult words on flash cards so that learners can read the words alone before they attempt to read the book.
Effect of second language on learners’ performance in reading

The language of learning and teaching in the Foundation Phase is a problem. Participants were confused about the Annual National Assessment (ANA) which Foundation Phase learners are expected to write in September every year. ANA is written in English whereas the Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement (CAPS) states that all Foundation Phase learners must be taught all the subjects in isiXhosa their home language. Teachers invariably resorted to code switching while teaching reading because learners cannot understand. Learners encountered problems, with spelling and sounds.

This was a response from a participant from School C: “English is good for learners because is the language used in the tertiary institutions and learners from public schools became frustrated when they enter tertiary level. But, in the Foundation Phase isiXhosa is the right language because they are young they must start from the known to the unknown”. She said, “CAPS is the right curriculum in the Foundation Phase.” Foundation Phase learners do not pronounce words correctly, they confused vowel sounds such as a, e and i. The learners end up guessing and then read the words incorrectly when they read in the second language.

Support from the Department of Basic Education for the teaching of reading.

All the participants were supported by the Department of Education. The support came from the lead teacher, principal, district officials and the school. Each school had a lead teacher for reading. The lead teacher is expected to make sure that there
are competitions for reading twice a year. The principal has to ensure that in the Foundation Phase there is a period for reading every week, so that learners can learn to read. There must be enough time for reading in the Foundation Phase. The district officials, for example, Subject Advisors are expected to visit schools quarterly to assist teachers in reading. The school has to make sure that there are enough books for reading in the Foundation Phase. The researcher noticed that the provision of basic support and material was inadequate.

Participants from school C responded by saying, “Quarterly at school we have competition for reading so that the lead teacher make sure that learners were able to read.”

4.7.4 Themes that emerged when analysing the focus group discussion at School C

The following themes emerged regarding the focus group analysis in School C:

1. Different reading strategies

2. Use of reading strategies

3. Challenges faced by teachers in reading strategies

4. Improvisation of reading material

5. Type of resources to facilitate the implementation of reading strategies

6. Lack of training for teachers

7. The effect of second language on learner’s performance
8. Support from the Department of Education

4.7.5 Focus Group Interviews data analysis for School D

Data gathered from the focus group interviews (involving a total of four teachers) were transcribed. The responses were placed in tabular form that allowed the researcher to make connections in the form of categories and emerging themes. From the categories, the emergent themes were established.

**Reading strategies that are used by teachers in the Foundation Phase**

Participants indicated that they used the different strategies because their schools were in rural areas; their learners became “confused” if they used many reading strategies. They also indicated that their classrooms accommodate large numbers of learners so there was not enough space for implementing all the reading strategies. The researcher noticed that teachers knew about all the reading strategies. They used reading aloud, shared, group-guided and independent as well as phonics. In School D they used the latter strategies but each Grade used similar strategies because they planned together in the Foundation Phase.

A participant from School D pointed out that, ”In our school Grade R only use reading aloud and reading after the teacher because they are too young for other strategies and it’s the first time to read.

As Grade R teachers were not trained it was important for them to use one strategy at a time so as to master it. Grade 1 and 2 used group-guided and shared reading because learners are similar in reading and they know many words in these grades and also know how to handle a book whilst they are reading. This participant also
pointed out that, Grade 3 learners used all the reading strategies like reading aloud, group-guided, shared, independent reading, re-reading and chunk reading because they know how to read and also the style of the teacher because each teacher teaches her learners from Grade 1 to Grade 3.

“The researcher noticed that to start learners from Grade 1 to Grade 3 is very important because the teacher gets to know their slow learners and learners who have barriers and therefore makes provision for them.

Use of reading strategies

Participants agreed that when applying group-guided reading they grouped learners according to their reading abilities so that they could assist the slow learners more. This showed that teachers were aware of the mixed abilities of learners and that teachers observed the learners carefully to assist those who appeared to have barriers.

The School D participant pointed out that, “In group-guided reading I group learners according to their abilities”. She said “I paired the learners so that it can be easy for me to identify those that they have barriers.”

The participants indicated that in independent reading, learners read the book alone aloud so that the teacher could identify slow learners easily. The researcher noticed that not all learners could read fluently in the Foundation Phase so it was important for teachers to observe the learners whilst reading.

Same participant said,” In reading aloud I read the book for the learners and they follow me and I use gestures whilst I am reading so that learners can imitate me”. 

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**Challenges faced by teachers in applying reading strategies**

All the respondents indicated that they faced challenges such as lack of resources, lack of teacher training, lack of parental involvement, insufficient time for reading, multilingualism and lack of motivation. They wanted the DoE to come to schools twice a year to check the needs of the school because schools had many challenges and the teachers required assistance.

A participant from School D complained about the time for reading. The participant said, “If the time for reading in the Foundation Phase is enough learners can read fluently and also the resources, for example, if reading books is also enough; our learners can read even if they are in rural areas”

The researcher supported this above statement by advising the Foundation Phase teachers to draft their timetable themselves and not stick strictly to that laid down by the DoE.

**Overcoming of the challenges faced by teachers in the Foundation Phase**

With regard to overcoming these challenges the respondents indicated that they overcame these challenges by borrowing books, buying one book and photocopying, by asking Head of the Department of the Foundation Phase to call parents’ meetings, writing letters requesting parents to come to school to discuss the performance of their children, buying flash cards and sentence strips, charts and clay. It was evident that there was not enough material for teaching and learning; the participants improvised by buying some reading material for their learners. The lack of material and parental involvement certainly affected reading.
A participant from School D said, “I make extra classes for reading.”

Participant in School C also reported that “I sometimes buy artwork made from clay and the subject advisers praised the idea of using clay models to stimulate learning and creativity among learners.” The learners were then expected to create their own clay artwork, thus enhancing reading, while also inducing creativity among learners.

**Resources use to facilitate reading strategies**

All the participants agreed that they implemented reading strategies by using resources like charts, pictures, magazines, flash cards and sentence strips although they bought these resources from their own pockets. The participants also stated that it was very important for Foundation Phase learners to see pictures when they read because they could then visualise the subject and situation in the story.

A participant from School D said that, “Magazines are very important because if the teacher reads a story about dogs and cats, it is easy for the learner to cut out dogs and cats and paste next to the words they read.

The participant said, “I bought these resources with my money”.

The researcher noticed that there were serious shortages of resources in this school. These resources are vital in the Foundation Phase.

Participant from school D said, “Although it is difficult for the learners to read the sentences if the teacher used reading aloud and writing the sentence in the chart, all the learners read the sentence”. Resources play a very important part for Foundation Phase learners ‘progress in reading. “
Lack of training of Foundation Phase teachers in reading

Some participants were not trained for this phase. They were assisted by other Foundation Phase teachers coaching in clusters. No Grade R teachers had been trained in reading strategies. The other participants were, however, trained to teach reading strategies.

Participants from school D said “I did not receive specific training to teach reading.

“Grade R learners were adversely affected; they could not read properly. Learners were simply memorising the text while others just hummed (mmmmmm), especially boys at the back of the class. They certainly could not understand the meaning of the words. When there is Foundation Phase competition in our school Grade R learners cannot participate because they cannot read properly”.

A participant from School D said, “I was trained to teach reading in my college when I was trained as a teacher and also through workshops”. In group-guided reading I grouped the learners according to their reading abilities. Each group had a group leader to assist the slow learners. Learners started reading the key words before they started the story. I write one paragraph of the story on the charts so that learners can read the story on the chart in the morning. I write sentences on the sentence strip so that learners read the sentences before being exposed to the relevant book.

Effect of second language on learners’ performance in reading

The language of learning and teaching in the Foundation Phase is a problem. Participants were confused by the Annual National Assessment (ANA) which
Foundation Phase learners write in September every year and also the changing of the curriculum for example, teachers started with OBE, RNCS, NCS now its CAPS. ANA is written in English whereas the Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement (CAPS) states that all Foundation Phase learners must be taught in isiXhosa for all their subjects. Teachers, however, invariably resorted to code switching while teaching reading because learners cannot understand. Learners encountered problems with spelling and sounds.

A participant from School D agreed with the above statement and also said, “I am satisfied with CAPS and learners are able to read isiXhosa and their parents assist them by making stories for them (iintsomi). The participant indicated that,“ In English second language the learners encountered problems in spelling, sounds and phonics they cannot read even in ANA teachers code switch so that they know the instructions”. The participant said, “ANA confused my learners. Foundation Phase learners are the ones who battle, some with no vocabulary at all especially from Grade R to 2. Learners are struggling to spell words used every day such as corrections = coretins, quiet=qwayt”.

**Support from the Department of Basic Education in the teaching of reading.**

All the participants were supported by the Department of Education. They were supported by the lead teacher, principal, district officials and the school. Each school had a lead teacher for reading. The lead teacher is required to must make sure that there are competitions for reading twice a year. The principal has to make sure that in the Foundation Phase there is a period for reading every day, so that learners
learn to read. Enough time for reading is important in the Foundation Phase. The district officials, for example Subject Advisors, are required to visit schools quarterly to assist teachers in reading and the school has to make sure that there are enough books for reading for this Phase. The researcher noticed that the support was insufficient. The basic requirements for a firm foundation were lacking.

Participants from school D said ‘Subject advisors assist us in reading by organising workshops for reading’ but not coming to my schools to observe whilst I am teaching and see my mistakes. ”She said “The Department of Education told us to have a lead teacher for reading in each school.”

4.7.6 Themes that emerged when analysing the focus group discussion in School D

The following themes emerged in the focus group analysis in School D.

1. Different reading strategies

2. Use of reading strategies

3. Challenges faced by teachers in reading strategies

4. Improvisation of reading material

5. Type of resources to facilitate the implementation of reading strategies

6. Lack of training for teachers

7. The effect of second language on learner’s performance

8. Support from the Department of Basic Education
### 4.7.7 Summary of themes for focus group interviews

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>School C</th>
<th>School D</th>
<th>Themes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Group reading, Reading aloud,</strong></td>
<td><strong>Group-guided reading, Paired reading,</strong></td>
<td>Different reading strategies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Independent reading,</strong></td>
<td><strong>Independent reading, Reading aloud,</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Shared reading, Group-guided reading</strong></td>
<td><strong>Shared reading, Chunk reading,</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Group-guided reading,</strong></td>
<td><strong>Re-reading,</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Grouping the learners in tens,</strong></td>
<td><strong>read the book aloud using gestures,</strong></td>
<td><strong>The use of reading strategies</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Whole-class reading,</strong></td>
<td><strong>grouped learners according to their reading abilities,</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Independent reading</strong></td>
<td><strong>first read the story aloud alone</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The learners read and were monitored.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Guide learners chose books for reading</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shortage of resources,</td>
<td><strong>Lack of resources,</strong></td>
<td><strong>The challenges faced by teachers</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>shortage of classrooms</td>
<td><strong>insufficient time for reading,</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>training of teachers</td>
<td><strong>lack of parental involvement,</strong></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>insufficient time for reading,</td>
<td><strong>multilingualism</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>reading,</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>multilingualism</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Borrowing books from other schools</td>
<td>Borrowing books from other schools and photocopying, making a corner library</td>
<td>Improvisation of reading material</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Photocopying. Holding extra classes</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
for learners, Calling parents’ meetings every quarter.

because there is no library in the school.

Asking parents to come to school to discuss performance.

Holding extra classes

Using charts, pictures and games.
Making small corner library in the classroom. Using flash cards and books which are borrowed from other schools.

Using magazines, charts and pictures, cutting out pictures from the magazines, flash cards, class library, sentence strips and newspapers

Type of resources use to facilitate reading strategies

Grade R teachers did not receive specific training.

Grade R teacher did not receive specific training to teach reading in the Foundation Phase, certain other Foundation Phase teachers did receive specific training

lack of training

Learners did not understand the instructions in English. Teacher’s code switched.

Learners did not understand the reading instructions. Teachers code switched so that learners could understand the instructions

The effect of second language on learners performance

The Department of Basic education gives us enough support

The Department of Basic Education gives us enough support to

Support from Department of Basic Education

**TABLE 5:** This table above shows the themes stemming from the data and responses gathered from the interviews. The researcher will give the interpretation of themes according to the heading.
4.8 Comparisons of results for focus group analysis

School C and School D used common reading strategies such as reading aloud, independent reading, shared and group reading but School D used two extra reading strategies such as re-reading and chunk reading. When the researcher asked the participants the reason why Grade 3 learners used these extra reading strategies, they said,

“Grade 3 learners must be able to read paragraphs, must know how to read and know the punctuation marks”.

When the participants were asked how they used these strategies, the responses for School C and School D was different. They applied these reading strategies differently because a School D teacher had have experience in teaching and she was assisted by other teachers who were teaching in urban areas whereas teachers for School C were merely assisted by others teachers in clusters.

The participant from School C said, “I grouped the learners in 10s and then I monitor them” whereas School D said “I grouped the learners according to their reading abilities and I use gestures when I am reading so that they can imitate me.”

When the researcher asked about the challenges the teachers faced when applying these reading strategies, both schools’ participants appeared to have the common challenges. They were in the same cluster and lacked resources, lacked parental involvement, had insufficient time for reading and were challenged by multilingualism. When the researcher asked the participants how they overcame these challenges at both schools, the participants’ responses were the similar they
borrowed books from other schools and photocopied them for the learners; they called Foundation Phase parents to meetings,, they held made extra classes for reading and they used code switching when they read instructions. Regarding the question of what resources teachers used to facilitate the implementation of these reading strategies, both schools used charts, magazines and pictures which they bought out of their pockets; however, School D also used sentence strips and newspapers because the teacher concerned lived in town and had a chance to buy newspapers.

She said, “I bought these resources with my money”.

In both schools, Grade R teachers were not trained, this reflected a problem in the Department of Education.

The participant said, “I did not receive specific training to teach reading.”

In both schools other teachers were, however, trained through workshops and clusters.

The participant said, “I was trained to teach reading in my college when I was trained as a teacher and also through workshops’.

Both schools experienced similar problem in the language of teaching and learners (LOLT), learners did not understand the reading instructions and teachers used code switching while teaching. Foundation Phase learners ought to be taught in isiXhosa so as to understand the meaning of words and start the new language in the Intermediate Phase. Support from the Department of Education was sufficient: both school were supported by the Department of Education by introducing the idea of
lead teachers in their schools for reading and instructing the principals to monitor reading in their schools.

As stated, the researcher noticed that two teachers (Grade R) were not trained and not supported by the Department of Education. Teachers faced many challenges in applying reading strategies. It behoves the DoE to look into these matters.

4.9 Triangulation of the themes from Individual Interviews and Focus group interviews

Two kinds of interviews were used, namely the individual interviews and focus group interviews. Triangulation was used as a strategy to validate the research instrument used to ensure reliability of acquired data for trustworthiness of the findings. In this study the emerging themes from individual interviews and focus group interviews were merged. In this study triangulation was also carried out. Data were collected using individual interviews and focus group interviews. The researcher collected data from four Junior Secondary Schools (4 participants in each school comprising teachers from Grade R, 1, 2, and 3). The researcher took five days to deal with each school because teachers were busy with examinations during days allocated to individual interviews. After the analysis of the individual interviews the researcher decided to collect the second data to test the reliability of the interviews.

The focus group interviews were conducted in another two purposeful Junior Secondary Schools. The data from the focus group were transcribed, organised and coded. Thereafter, themes that emerged were interpreted. Before the researcher discussed the findings she triangulated the themes and the findings from the two
different interviews. The researcher used two different data analysis results from individual and focus group interviews. These two data analysis results (individual and focus group results) had to be put together in order to check the reliability of the individual interviews.

The researcher now presents both data analysis results under each subsidiary research question: What reading strategies used by teachers in the Foundation Phase? In response to the above subsidiary question, the researcher wanted to know about the reading strategies used by F. P. teachers. Can you explain the reading strategies used in the Foundation Phase? The researcher asked a number of questions in order to understand whether or not the participants used reading strategies.

What type of reading challenges are faced by teachers? In this question the researcher wanted to know if they experienced reading challenges when applying these reading strategies. The researcher wanted to know whether or not the participants were trained and what type of training they recovered.

In response to this question the researcher needed the responses of the participants regarding their training and how they improvised when short of resources, and about the importance of resources in the Foundation Phase. In this question the researcher wanted the participants’ to explain the problems they faced when teaching the learners reading in the second language. In this response to the above question, the researcher wanted to know about the kind of support given to Foundation Phase teachers in reading by the DoE and the way in which they were supported.
The themes and findings from the individual interviews were merged together with the themes and findings of the focus group interviews. The themes that had the same responses to the same subsidiary questions were fused together. The same applied to the findings. The researcher will later discuss the merged themes and findings from the two different interviews.

4.10. Conclusion

This chapter discussed the data gathered from the instruments, namely interviews such as individual interviews and focus group interviews. From the results of the instruments, data were synthesized and interpreted into emerging themes.

Chapter 5 will focus on the discussion of the findings, summary of the study and recommendations.
Chapter 5

5. FINDINGS, RECOMMENDATIONS AND SUMMARY OF THE STUDY

5.1 Introduction

In the previous chapter, the researcher analysed, interpreted and presented the data collected for this study. In this chapter, the findings of the study are discussed. The findings are discussed vis-à-vis the relevant literature in this study. The implications of the findings researched are highlighted and recommendations, based on the findings, have been provided.

5.2. Discussion on findings

It is necessary to have major findings that the collected data reveal. The list needs the attention of the researcher so as to provide the required recommendations in order to find a solution. The following sub-section is devoted to a discussion of the findings which were derived from the themes that emerged.

5.3 Summary of the findings

In this chapter the researcher discussed the findings of the study. In this regard the intention is to summarise the findings.

Finding1: Use of different reading strategies

This finding is divided into four aspects; they are reading aloud, independent reading, group reading and phonics:

Teachers prefer reading aloud as the best strategy in teaching reading
In this finding the researcher noted that teachers indicated that reading aloud was one of the strategies used by teachers in the Foundation Phase. They said that this was advantageous because when the teacher read aloud to the class or to a particular group, learners listened attentively and with interest. According to the National Reading Strategy (2008, p.12), reading aloud to learners helps them to develop a love of good literature, motivates them to read on their own and offers familiarity with a variety of genres, including non-fiction. It also helps learners to listen to the correct pronunciation of words.

**Teachers taught learners to do independent reading**

In the findings of the study, the researcher noted that independent reading was done in both schools. To ensure that learners had read their books independently, teachers discussed what the learners had read with them, or, the learner had to re-tell the story to the class. This happened in Grade 3. To ensure that the learners have understood what they have read, teachers should discuss the stories or books with the learners (Teaching Reading in the Early Grades Teachers handbook).

**Teachers helped learners who presented with barriers to reading**

The researcher noticed that Foundation Phase teachers did group reading during the reading periods. Teachers said that this type of reading helped learners who had barriers to reading, because learners listened to what they heard from others and imitated the good readers. Group reading extends learners sight and listening vocabulary (Teaching in the early Grades Teachers Hand Book 2008). Group reading helps to reduce the class size and maximise teaching and learning.
Teachers drill learners when teaching phonics

The researcher discovered that teachers used the drilling method for phonics with their learners, and there were also phonic charts in English that were on the wall. They also used flash cards that were also made available to every learner. This finding is supported by Rose (2006, p.27) who stated that the goal of phonics instruction is to make children understand that there is a systematic and predictable relationship between written letters and spoken sounds. Knowing these relationships helps children recognise familiar words accurately and automatically, and to decode new ones. Teachers were aware that awareness of phonics was the most important aspect of reading because learners had to recognise and manipulate the sound segments in words; a most important aspect in the early-reading development. The researcher also noticed that good reading strategies were used in the Foundation Phase. There were, however, various variables such as teachers’ teaching experience and the background of the learners which can affect effective development in reading.

Finding: 2 Challenges faced by teachers in applying reading strategies

This finding is divided into 4 aspects such as parental involvement, lack of resources and lack of teacher training

Parents are being unable to help their learners in reading due to illiteracy of parents.

This finding showed that most parents were not educated. This could have a bearing on the learners’ performance in reading strategies. The participants in the study
pointed out that some parents had not been to school and, consequently, parents could not read and write. The educators’ belief was that educated parents usually had a working knowledge of the language and therefore were in a better position to assist their children with their school work. Rosehouse (1997) states children of illiterate parent have less of a chance of success in reading acquisition and extraction of meaning from text than children of literate parents. Rosehouse goes on to say that educated parents interact with their children through storybook reading. Mwamwenda (1989) has a similar opinion when he said educated parents provide their children with books, newspapers, toys, magazines, radios and also provide access to television. He further indicates that uneducated parents do not support and give guidance to their children. This may be due to the lack of reading skills, even mother tongue and lack of basic academic support for their children at home. Furthermore, they did not attend parent-teacher meetings. Reasons cited for non-attendance of meetings included not having money for transport, not being able to get time off work or not being interested and/or understanding the value of meetings. Parents are often not aware of what is happening with their child’s learning. They feel that it is the teacher’s job to educate their child and do not have an understanding of their role in the education process.

**A lack of resources when teachers teach reading**

The researcher found that these selected schools did not have libraries; learners only read in class. According to the participants, there were very few reading books in the schools. This finding is supported by Bot (2005) who states that libraries are buildings specially designed to create a more conducive environment for learners to
use when studying and libraries should also house different books in order to assist learners with any given task. This finding is supported by Obanya (2002) who points out that learners from more advantaged schools usually spend their time in libraries after school, during weekends and holidays. The implication is disadvantaged learners are deprived of the opportunity to use their time profitably in libraries after school. The absence of a library at the school contributes to poor reading abilities by learners. According to one of the participants, the problem is compounded by the fact that most of the learners do not have reading materials at home. They further claimed that teachers did not have photocopying materials to duplicate either materials or information for the learners. This study revealed that lack of available of material contributes to learners’ poor reading skills.

It is advised that Foundation Phase teachers should improvise reading materials for learners by making charts and buying clays and toys, however, Singh (2009) warns that charts should be carefully chosen to lead learners to read. Their content should be appropriately designed and made by the teachers so that they are relevant and interesting.

**Finding: 3 Teachers not having been trained for teaching reading strategies**

The researcher noted that four teachers in the research schools were not trained to teach reading strategies and even those who claimed to be trained used traditional approaches to teaching reading. It can therefore be stated that teachers were generally not sufficiently trained to teach reading. Furthermore, regular workshops were not organised to orientate teachers of the Foundation Phase classes to teach
reading strategies. The importance of training teachers is to help them understand how to teach reading strategies in the Foundation Phase. According to Hugo (2010), there are certain requirements and skills that teachers of reading have to attend to and that teachers need to be flexible do well as being well trained. Donald and Condy (2005) advise that untrained teachers be trained by a team of departmental educators at workshops held at least twice a year. In the same vein, Singh (2005 p.9) states that Foundation Phase teachers should be trained in the teaching skills required to teach learners how to read. Training workshops for teachers would enable them to update and improve teaching strategies and to feel more empowered in their delivery of the curriculum in the present context. Teachers could also learn more about how to provide support to learners who are experiencing difficulties. Workshops might focus on reading and the development and facilitation of literacy, as well as all other subject areas. Wium et al (2010) developed a support programme for Foundation Phase teachers to assist them with facilitating listening and language in learners. Enhanced listening and language skills would help learners to cope with literacy development in the foundation phase. A support programme for intermediate-phase teachers to assist with the facilitation of foundation skills for reading and writing is needed. The teachers in this study were emphatic in their request for support for helping learners struggling with reading.

Finding: 4 Improvisation to improve reading material

Foundation Phase teachers improvise reading materials for learners in the mother-tongue by making charts, buying clays and toys. However, Singh (2009) warns that charts should be carefully chosen to lead learners to read. Their content should be
appropriately designed and made by the teachers so that they are relevant and interesting.

Finding: 5 Use of second language in teaching affect the performance of learners in the Foundation Phase in reading

This study revealed that the use of second language in the Foundation Phase was not appropriate because learners found it difficult to understand what the teacher was teaching. When the learners read in the L2 they are struggling. According to the Department of Basic Education (2011), all subjects in the Foundation Phase should be taught in isiXhosa and also in the Curriculum Assessment of Policy Statement (CAPS), learners have to be taught in isiXhosa for all the subjects. That is, if the school is located in isiXhosa-speaking area.

Teachers reported that where learners were exposed to English from a young age, such as from preschool or Grade 1, they were able to cope in the Intermediate phase as their English language skills had had time to develop, however, if learners only entered the school in Grade 3 or 4 and had not been exposed to English prior to that, there was a language barrier. Not only do these learners need to acquire basic interpersonal communication skills (BICS), they also need to develop cognitive academic language proficiency (CALP) (Cummins, 2008). Teaching and learning is a challenge for all concerned. According to the Education White Paper 6 (DBE, 2001), all learners have different learning needs and the education system is required to meet them.
The Language in Education Policy (LiEP) gives learners the choice of the LoLT (DBE, 1997). Learners in state schools in South Africa have the right to choose any of the eleven official languages as the LoLT and as a learning area from Grade 3 onwards (DoE, 1997), hence, learners may be taught in their mother tongue up to Grade 3, and then have the option of extending the use of their home language into the Intermediate Phase (DBE, 1997); however, to make it practical, the LiEP makes provision for the consideration of learner numbers when making the choice of the LoLT.

**Finding:** 6 Teachers were supported by the DoE but the support was not enough.

This study revealed that the support was not enough. Grade R teachers were not supported by the DBE they are assisted by other Foundation Phase teachers in clusters. The White Paper 6 (WP) (DBE 2001a, p.47) maintains that the education support services will be strengthened and will have at their centre, which is the core provider of support at district level.

**5.4 Summary of the study**

The findings in this study indicated that parental participation in learners’ reading at home seemed to lead to improved reading ability of their children. One important finding in the study was that learners from educated families read better than learners from uneducated families. For learners to perform well in reading, parental involvement in their children’s reading is important.
It was found that some Foundation Phase teachers in this study had not been trained properly to assist learners in reading. Those teachers underwent un-coordinated training in teaching reading in the Foundation Phase. The participants indicated that for them to be able to cope with the basics of teaching reading to learners in the Foundation Phase they depended on the “crash-course workshops” organized by the Eastern Cape provincial Department of Basic Education. The participants expressed concern regarding the lack of on-going support and monitoring by departmental officials. Teachers needed guidance in order to teach reading strategies effectively and in order to improve the reading abilities of the learners. Without this support and monitoring, teachers were left to their own devices and had to improvise reading materials even when they were not sure of the suitability thereof.

The absence of a library in the research schools and lack of reading material certainly hindered the reading ability of learners. When the teachers improved reading material, learners became more interested in reading. The availability of a library in a school helps in the motivation of learners to read (Obanya, 2002). The absence of a library in the research schools therefore seemed to be an impediment to the reading ability of learners in the school. As regards the Photostatting of readers, this is in fact against publication laws and could result in law suits.

5.5 Implications of the findings

In this section the researcher discusses the implications of the findings.
Parents tell children stories and children in turn make up their own stories. In the schools where the research was conducted there was a lack of reading material. The schools are in poverty-stricken areas which are not given adequate subsidies from the government. Teachers resorted to buying charts and clay for the learners.

The implications of the findings are that for reading in the Foundation Phase to improve there should be regular in-service teacher training that specifically deals with Foundation Phase reading strategies. Poor reading strategies used by teachers yield poor results. Learners of uneducated parents need to be educated to assist their wards. Also, learners’ reading interests are not activated because of the lack of class libraries.

5.6 Recommendations

The following are the recommendations that the researcher felt might assist teachers in checking where the problem lies regarding failure to read well.

**Recommendation 1: Building of libraries as secondary sources to enhance reading ability of learners**

Libraries should be built in these schools to enable learners to develop a culture of reading. Library usage by borrowing reading books from an early age in their lives would help. It is important that learners must have enough reading materials so that they can read fluently. This will encourage learners to go to the library on their own instead of waiting to be sent by their teachers or parents. The practice of using the library will also help learners to manage their homework and have access to relevant materials provided they can read.
Recommendation 2: Provision of in-service training for teachers in applying reading strategies

It is recommended that the Department of Basic Education intensifies the training workshops and develops teachers professionally. Across the world, countries are reconstructing and reforming their educational systems to meet the needs of post-modern societies. Such countries have realised that the key to effective educational change is the professional development of teachers. To equip teachers effectively, orientation is needed.

Recommendation 3: Parental involvement in their children’s reading improvement initiatives

It is recommended that parents be involved in, and participate in, their children’s reading. Parents ought to assist their children at home with homework. Unfortunately, however, in this study the literacy levels of parents were found to be very low or non-existent, therefore there is a need for the establishment of an adult and basic education training centre for locals to receive basic education and training, including reading and writing. This would assist parents to be able to assist their children in reading. The school could also contribute in this regard by organising small-scale, informal workshops for parents to be able to assist their children in reading.

Recommendation 4: Provision of reading material by the Department of Education
It is recommended that the Department of Basic Education should buy extra reading materials for teachers. The reading material must supplement the reader used at that particular time or year. Readers must be delivered early so that teachers can start reading earlier in the year and no child should have to share a reader.

**Recommendation 5: Use of L1 in the Foundation Phase**

It is recommended that for learners in the Foundation Phase to read effectively they use their mother tongue for reading. The learner in the Foundation Phase must start from the known to the unknown. Teachers must teach according to the mother tongue of the learner. The Department of Basic Education states that every learner must learn in a language of his/her choice.

**5.7 Cweba’s proposed model of developing teachers in the reading challenges when applying reading strategies in the Foundation Phase.**

The researcher created the proposed model after her conducting the study in the Mthatha District on the Foundation Phase teachers in relation to reading. The researcher used four Junior Secondary Schools. In this study the researcher wanted to understand the specific contextual essence of the challenges faced by teachers in applying reading strategies in the Foundation Phase. It is on this base that the researcher decided to develop Cweba’s proposed model of developing teachers in the reading challenges when applying reading strategies in the Foundation Phase. It was designed after the researcher integrated the findings from the individual and focus group interviews that the researcher came up with new knowledge.
This model composed of the stake holders at school such as DoE, Foundation Phase teachers, learners and parents. In this model the DoE should organize workshops for foundation phase teachers for reading strategies, Foundation phase teaches should teach the learners in their home language so that they can be able to read. On the other hand the DoE should build libraries in schools and the learners should use these libraries so that the learner will be able to read. Parents must be involved in schools to see the performance their children and must assist their children after theta learners will be able to read at home.

Schema theory states that concepts are also strongly influenced by previous learning experience and Vygotsky’s theory states that a child must name the objects and after that read the word, hence, teachers have a major role in this study because the teacher must teach Foundation Phase learners using pictures so that the learner, for example, when seeing the “dog” can thereafter read the word. The researcher tried to find ways of limiting the challenges faced by teachers in applying reading strategies and felt a model was appropriate.

Learners come to school with common knowledge and teachers teach them by using concrete knowledge. Vygotsky (1978, p.57) explains that other people play important roles in helping children to learn, providing projects and bringing ideas to their attention, talking while playing and sharing while playing, reading stories and asking questions, hence, the researcher, in this model emphasises parental involvement in schools. The researcher found that the Department of Education did not organise workshops for Grade R teachers on reading strategies, (Four teachers in the research schools were not trained to teach reading strategies and those who
claimed to be trained used traditional approaches to teaching reading.) The findings of this study also showed that most parents were not educated. This could have a bearing on the learners’ performance in reading strategies. The educators’ belief was that educated parents usually had a working knowledge of the language and therefore were in a better position to assist their children with their school work. This study also revealed that the use of English language in the Foundation Phase was not appropriate, because learners found it difficult to understand what the teacher teaches. Teachers should therefore use the L1 when they are teaching in the Foundation Phase.

The researcher recommended that the Department of Basic Education intensifies the training workshops and develops teachers’ professionally. In this study the literacy levels of parents was found to be very low or non-existent, therefore there is a need for the establishment of an adult basic education and training centre for locals to receive basic education and training, including reading and writing. Libraries should be built in these schools to enable learners to develop a culture of reading. This would assist parents to be able to assist their children in reading. The researcher also recommended that Foundation Phase teachers must use the home language to teach the learners because the learner starts from the known to the unknown.

This is Cweba’s model of developing teachers in the reading challenges when applying reading strategies in the Foundation Phase. This will help Junior Secondary Schools to have clear guidelines on how the teachers use reading strategies.
5.8 Conclusion

In this chapter the researcher discussed the findings, implications and recommendations of the study. The study aimed at investigating the challenges faced by teachers in applying reading strategies when teaching reading in the Foundation Phase.

The study employed the qualitative approach and adopted a case study design. The schools used in this study were purposefully selected. The data were collected
through individual interviews and focus group interviews. Data were presented, analysed and interpreted from the research questions. Data reporting took form of descriptions and verbatim quotations in line with the qualitative thrust of the study. Themes subsequently emerged. It was found that teachers in the Foundation Phase lacked expertise in teaching reading strategies. Some of them were not initially trained for Foundation Phase classes, but relied on other Foundation Phase teachers and clusters which only partially dealt with critical aspects. Improving reading of the learners of the Foundation Phase should not be the duty of teachers only. Principals should increase the periods of reading because teachers are not allocated enough time. Multilingualism in schools should be abolished especially in the Foundation Phase. Learners should be taught in the home language in the Foundation Phase. Education development officers, subject advisors, lead teachers and parents should work together to improve the reading ability of learners in the Foundation Phase.
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Appendix A: Application letter to school A

Dikishe J.S.S.
P.O. BOX 52536
Mthatha
5099
13 January 2014

THE PRINCIPAL
Ngangenyathi J.S.S.
Mthatha

Sir

APPLICATION TO CONDUCT A RESEARCH
STUDENT NO: 195616391

I am a Doctor of Education student at WSU, this a request to conduct a research at Ngangenyathi J.S.S. The topic is: Challenges faced by teachers in applying reading strategies when teaching reading in the Foundation Phase in the Mthatha District. I am going to interview Foundation Phase teachers. I confirm that the teachers will be protected.

I would be very pleased if you accept the request.

Thank you.

Yours faithfully
Vuyokazi Cweba -Mnyazi
Appendix B: Application letter to school B

Dikishe J.S.S.
P.O. BOX 52536
Mthatha
5099
13 January 2014

THE PRINCIPAL
GADUKA J.S.S
Mthatha

Sir

APPLICATION TO CONDUCT A RESEARCH
STUDENT NO: 195616391

I am a Doctor of Education student at WSU, this a request to conduct a research at Gaduka J.S.S. The topic is: Challenges faced by teachers in applying reading strategies when teaching reading in the Foundation Phase in the Mthatha District. I am going to interview Foundation Phase teachers. I confirm that the teachers will be protected.
I would be very pleased if you accept the request.
Thank you.

Yours faithfully
Vuyokazi Cweba -Mnyazi
Appendix C: Application letter to School C

NO.9 Mahe Street
Mbuqe extension
Mthatha
5099
11 May 2015

Gobizizwe SPS
P.O. Box 554
Mthatha
5099
Madam

APPLICATION TO CONDUCT A RESEARCH

STUDENT NO: 195616391

I am a Doctor of Education student at WSU, this is a request to conduct a research at Gobizizwe J.S.S. The topic is: Challenges faced by teachers in applying reading strategies when teaching reading in the Foundation Phase in the Mthatha District. I am going to interview Foundation Phase teachers. I confirm that the teachers will be protected.

I would be very pleased if you accept the request.

Thank you.

Yours faithfully

Vuyokazi Cweba-Mnyazi
Appendix D: Application letter to school D

DIKISHE J.S.S
P.O. BOX 52536
MTHATHA
5099

THE PRINCIPAL
DIKISHE J.S.S.
P.O. BOX 52536
MTHATHA
5099

Sir

APPLICATION TO CONDUCT A RESEARCH
STUDENT NO: 195616391

I am a Doctor of Education student at WSU, this is a request to conduct a research at Dikishe J.S.S. The topic is “Challenges faced by teachers in applying reading strategies when teaching in the Foundation Phase in the Mthatha District”. I am going to interview Foundation Phase teachers. I confirm that the teachers will be protected.

I would be very pleased if you accept the request.

Thank you

Yours faithfully
Vuyokazi Cweba-Mnyazi
Appendix E: Interview schedule for teachers

INTERVIEW SCHEDULE FOR TEACHERS

**Topic:** Challenges faced by teachers in applying reading strategies when teaching reading in the Foundation Phase

**Purpose:** To investigate the challenges faced by teachers in applying reading strategies in the Foundation Phase

**Introduction:** I will introduce myself to the teachers

**Section A**

Biographical Information

1. How long have you been a teacher in the Foundation Phase?

2. What is your highest qualifications?

3. Were you trained for this Phase?

4. Which rank are you?

**Section B**

The following questions require your candid response to enable the researcher gather the required data to be able to answer the questions about the research being undertaken.

1. Name any reading strategies that you used in the Foundation Phase?

2. How do you use these strategies?
3. What challenges do you face in applying these reading strategies?

4. How do you overcome these challenges faced by teachers?

5. What resources do you use to facilitate implementation of these strategies?

6. Do you receive specific training to teach reading in the Foundation Phase?

7. How does the use of second language affect the performance of learners in reading?

8. How does the Department of Education support you with reading strategies?
Appendix F: Permission letter to conduct research from Bisho

Mrs. Vuyokazi Chweba  
9 Mako Street  
Mbuqe Extension  
Mthatha  
5099

Dear Mrs. Chweba

PERMISSION TO UNDERTAKE A DOCTORAL RESEARCH: CHALLENGES FACED BY TEACHERS IN APPLYING READING STRATEGIES WHEN TEACHING READING IN THE FOUNDATION PHASE IN THE MTHATHA DISTRICT

1. Thank you for your application to conduct research.

2. Your application to conduct a research in two selected Secondary Schools in Mthatha District of the Eastern Cape Department of Education (ECDoE) is hereby approved based on the following conditions:
   a. there will be no financial implications for the Department;
   b. institutions and respondents must not be identifiable in any way from the results of the investigation;
   c. you present a copy of the written approval letter of the Eastern Cape Department of Education (ECDoE) to the Cluster and District Directors before any research is undertaken at any institutions within that particular district;
   d. you will make all the arrangements concerning your research;
   e. the research may not be conducted during official contact time, as educators' programmes should not be interrupted;
   f. should you wish to extend the period of research after approval has been granted, an application to do this must be directed to Chief Director: Strategic Management Monitoring and Evaluation;
g. the research may not be conducted during the fourth school term, except in cases where a special well-motivated request is received;

h. your research will be limited to those schools or institutions for which approval has been granted, should changes be effected written permission must be obtained from the Chief Director: Strategic Management Monitoring and Evaluation;

i. you present the Department with a copy of your final paper/report/dissertation/thesis free of charge in hard copy and electronic format. This must be accompanied by a separate synopsis (maximum 2 – 3 typed pages) of the most important findings and recommendations if it does not already contain a synopsis.

j. you present the findings to the Research Committee and/or Senior Management of the Department when and/or where necessary.

k. you are requested to provide the above to the Chief Director: Strategic Management Monitoring and Evaluation upon completion of your research.

l. you comply with all the requirements as completed in the Terms and Conditions to conduct Research in the ECDofE document duly completed by you.

m. you comply with your ethical undertaking (commitment form).

n. You submit on a six monthly basis, from the date of permission of the research, concise reports to the Chief Director: Strategic Management Monitoring and Evaluation.

3. The Department reserves a right to withdraw the permission should there not be compliance to the approval letter and contract signed in the Terms and Conditions to conduct Research in the ECDofE.

4. The Department will publish the completed Research on its website.

5. The Department wishes you well in your undertaking. You can contact the Director, Ms. NY Kanjana on the numbers indicated in the letterhead or email nelisakanjana@gmail.com should you need any assistance.

NY KANJANA
DIRECTOR: STRATEGIC PLANNING POLICY RESEARCH & SECRETARIAT SERVICES
FOR SUPERINTENDENT-GENERAL: EDUCATION
Appendix G: Permission letter to conduct research from district office

Province of the
EASTERN CAPE
DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION

Botha Sigcau Building *Office No. 35A *Ground Floor *Mthatha *Private Bag X5003 *Mthatha *5099
REPUBLIC OF SOUTH AFRICA *Tel: +27 (47) 502 4288 *Fax: +27 (47) 5313535 *Website: ecprov.gov.za
*Email: tvnompozolo@webmail.co.za

Date: 19.09.2013

LETTER GRANTING PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH IN SCHOOLS.

Mrs. Vuyokazi Cweba
No. 9 Maka Street
Mbube Extension
Mthatha

Mthatha

Dear Mrs Vuyokazi Cweba

Permission to conduct Research

Permission is hereby granted for you to conduct research provided the following conditions are taken into consideration.

1. Educators are not forced to participate if they are reluctant to do so.
2. Ethical issues such as what are legitimate to do, or moral are considered.
3. It is hoped that the study will be of great assistance to the department. This implies that your findings will be shared with us.

You will be required to present the copy of this permission to the principals of the affected schools.

Good luck.

Yours in Education

S.N. Moyikwa (Circuit Manager)
Appendix H: Permission to conduct research from school A

Ngangenyathi J.S.S.
P.O. Box 1342
Mtata
5099

Madam

AGREEMENT ON CONDUCTING RESEARCH

We (the school governing council together with the entire staff members) agree that you can conduct a research topic at the above mentioned school.

With Thanks.

Yours in service

...........................

R. N. MBUQE (Principal)
Appendix I: Permission to conduct research from school B

Gaduka J.S.S
P.O BOX 53044
Mthatha
17/01/2014

Mrs V. CWeba
NO. 9 Maka STREET
MBUQE EXTENSION
MTHATHA

DEAR MRS CWeba

The management of the above mentioned institution has no objection in allowing you to conduct a research on the topic you intend researching.

Foundation phase teachers are prepared to co-operate in the topic of your choice.

Yours faithfully
R.T Hlalukana (Principal)
083 736 2545
Appendix J: Permission to conduct research from school C

Gobizizwe SPS
P.O. Box 554
Mthatha
5099
11 June 2015

Mrs V. CWEBA
No 9 Maka street
Mbuqe extension
Mthatha

Dear MRS CWEBA

The management of the above mentioned institution has no objection in allowing you to conduct a research on the topic you intend to research.

Foundation phase teachers are prepared to co-operate in the topic of your choice.

Yours faithfully

Ms PP NGQUKUMBA (PRINCIPAL)
073 156 8219
Appendix K: Permission to conduct research from school D

Dikishe J.S.S
P.O. Box 52536
Mthatha
5099

Mrs Vuyokazi Cweba
No.9 Maka Street
Mbuqe Extension
Mthatha

Mthatha

Dear Mrs Vuyokazi Cweba

Permission to conduct research

Permission is hereby granted for you to conduct research at the above school.

The topic is challenges faced by teachers in applying reading strategies when teaching reading in the Foundation Phase.

Good luck.

Yours in Education

Mr G.T. Msimang
Appendix L: Participant consent form

WALTER SISULU UNIVERSITY
DIRECTORATE OF POSTGRADUATE STUDIES

INFORMED CONSENT FORM (EXAMPLE) (SAVE AS PORTAIT FOR FINAL USE)

Title of the project:

APPELLAIS

Main Supervisor: Dr. M. S. Sengula

Name of Researcher: 

Researcher's Institution: 

Name of the Main Supervisor (in case of students): 

Purpose of the study/research: (if research is for a qualification, which one?): 

PARTICIPANT'S INFORMED CONSENT

The purpose of the study and the extent to which I will be involved was explained to me by the researcher or another person authorized by the researcher in a language which I understood. I have understood the purpose of the study and the extent to which I will be involved in the study. I unreservedly agree to take part in it voluntarily. I understand that I am free to withdraw from the study at any time at any stage of my own will. I am aware that I may not directly benefit from this study. I am made aware that my responses will be recorded anonymously and that I may be audio- or video-taped for the purpose of this research.

For participants who are under 18 years (minors): I have explained to my parent/guardian that I am willing to be part of this study and they too have agreed to it.

Signed at (place): 

Date: 

Witness: Name: 

Signature: 

Date: 

In case where minors are participants, the parent/guardian, also needs to sign below (In such cases, a letter of introduction in a language which the parent/guardian understands will accompany this form)

PARENT'S/GUARDIAN'S INFORMED CONSENT

I ____________________________________________ am the father/mother/guardian of the minor. The purpose of the study/project and the extent to which the minor under my care will be involved was explained by the researcher or another person authorized by the researcher to me in a language which I understood. I have understood the purpose of the study and the extent to which the minor will be involved in the study. I unreservedly agree for him/her/them to take part in it if he/she/they have no personal objection. I understand that I and/or the minor are free to withdraw our consent at any time at any stage of our own will. I have explained to the minor under my care that I have no objection in him/her in taking part in this study and he/she too have agreed to it.

Signed at (place): 

Date: 

Witness: Name: 

Signature: 

Date: 

ENDORSEMENT BY THE HEAD OF THE PARTICIPANT'S INSTITUTION

Signature:
PARTICIPANT'S INFORMED CONSENT

The purpose of the study and the extent to which I will be involved was explained to me by the researcher or another person authorized by the researcher in a language which I understand. I have understood the purpose of the study and the extent to which I will be involved in the study. I unreservedly agree to take part in it voluntarily. I understand that I am free to withdraw from the study at any time at any stage of my own will. I am aware that I may not directly benefit from this study. I am made aware that my responses will be recorded anonymously and that I may be audio- or video-taped for the purpose of this research.

For participants who are under 18 years (minors): I have explained to my parent/guardian that I am willing to be part of this study and they too have agreed to it.

Signed at (place) on (date) by (full name) of (address)

Witness: Name: Signature: Date:

In case where minors are participants, the parent/guardian, also needs to sign below (In such cases, a letter of introduction in a language which the parent/guardian understands will accompany this form)

PARENTS/GUARDIANS INFORMED CONSENT

I ___________________________ am the father/mother/guardian of the minor. The purpose of the study/project and the extent to which the minor under my care will be involved was explained by the researcher or another person authorized by the researcher to me in a language which I understand. I have understood the purpose of the study and the extent to which the minor will be involved in the study. I unreservedly agree for him/her/them to take part in it if he/she/they have no personal objection. I understand that I and/or the minor are free to withdraw our consent at any time at any stage of our own will. I have explained to the minor under my care that I have no objection in him/her in taking part in this study and he/she too have agreed to it.

Signed at (place) on (date) by (full name) of (address):

Witness: Name: Signature: Date:

ENDORSEMENT BY THE HEAD OF THE PARTICIPANT'S INSTITUTION

Name: Signature:

Office Stamp:
Appendix K

WALTER SISULU UNIVERSITY
DIRECTORATE OF POSTGRADUATE STUDIES
MANDATORY CONSENT FORM: ELECTRONIC THESES & DISSERTATIONS (ETD) AND PLAGIARISM REQUIREMENT (For postgraduate research outputs from 2009 September)

TEMPLATE FOR THE STUDENT AND SUPERVISOR CONSENT FOR PUBLICATION OF ELECTRONIC RESEARCH OUTPUT ON INTERNET AND WSU INTRANET

FACULTY:

QUALIFICATION NAME: ___________________________ ABBREVIATION: ___________ YEAR: ___________

STUDENT'S FULL NAME: _________________________ STUDENT NUMBER: ___________


TITLE OF THE RESEARCH OUTPUT: ____________________________

CONSENT: I HEREBY GIVE MY CONSENT TO WALTER SISULU UNIVERSITY TO PUBLISH MY RESEARCH OUTPUT FOR THE QUALIFICATION ABOVE ON THE WSU INTRANET AND INTERNET. I CERTIFY THAT TO THE BEST OF MY KNOWLEDGE, THERE IS NO PLAGIARISM IN THE RESEARCH OUTPUT AS SUBMITTED. I HAVE TAKEN REASONABLE CARE TO ENSURE THAT THE RESEARCH OUTPUT MEETS THE QUALITY LEVEL EXPECTED FOR THE PRESENT QUALIFICATION LEVEL BOTH IN TERMS OF CONTENT AND TECHNICAL REQUIREMENTS. I FULLY UNDERSTAND THE CONTENTS OF THIS DECLARATION.

SIGNATURE OF STUDENT: _________________________ DATE: ___________

ENDORSEMENTS BY:

SUPERVISOR:

FULL NAME: _________________________ SIGNATURE: _________________________ DATE: ___________

CO-SUPERVISOR(S):

1. FULL NAME: _________________________ SIGNATURE: _________________________ DATE: ___________

2. FULL NAME: _________________________ SIGNATURE: _________________________ DATE: ___________